THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

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THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

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VOLUME V.

JALANDHAR TO KYWON-PYA-THAT.

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THE INDIAN EMPIRE
Prepared for Dr. W. W. Hunter's
IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA
Scale 265 miles = to 1 inch
REFERENCES
British Territory colored Pink
Dependent & Subordinate Native States Yellow
Independent States Green
Railways opened
Do not opened
Roads
The numerals denote the height above sea level in feet.
This Map is intended only to exhibit the principal places, chief rivers &c. in India.
T H I B E T
ARABIAN SEA
BAY OF BENGAL
I N D I A N O C E A N
Tropic of Cancer
Gulf of Cutch
Gulf of Cambay
Mouths of the Ganges
Gulf of Martaban
Gulf of Manar
Palk's Strait
Malabar Coast
Coromandel Coast
Laccadive Islands
Maldive Islands
Andaman Isds
Nicobar Islands
Mergui Archipelago
Cape Comorin
Cape Monze
Cape Negrais
BOMBAY
CALCUTTA
MADRAS
Colombo
Long. E. of Greenwich
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IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

INDIA.

VOLUME V.

Jalandhar (*Jullundur*).—A Division under a Commissioner in the Punjab, comprising the three Districts of JALANDHAR, HOSHIARPUR, and KANGRA, each of which see separately. Lat. 30° 56′ 30″ to 32° 59′ N., long. 75° 6′ 30″ to 77° 49′ 15″ E. Area of Jalandhar Division, 12,181 square miles, of which 2738 are cultivated; pop. (1868), 2,477,536, viz. 1,334,653 males and 1,142,883 females; persons per square mile, 203.

Jalandhar (*Jullundur*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 30° 56′ 30″ and 31° 37′ N. lat., and between 75° 6′ 30″ and 77° 49′ 15″ E. long., with an area of 1332 square miles, and a population (1868) of 794,764 persons. Jalandhar forms the southernmost District in the Division of the same name. It is bounded on the north-east by the District of Hoshiárpur; on the north-west by the Native State of Kapurthála and the river Beas (Biás); and on the south by the Sutlej (Satlej). The administrative headquarters are at the town of Jalandhar.

Physical Aspects.—The blunt triangular tongue of land, enclosed by the confluent streams of the Sutlej and the Beas, bears the general name of the Jalandhar Doáb. Its submontane portion belongs to Hoshiárpur; the remainder is divided between the Native State of Kapurthála and the British District of Jalandhar. Below the hills, the whole Doáb consists of one unbroken alluvial expanse, whose fertility extends without a single gap from river to river. The Síkhs regarded it as the richest region in the Punjab plains; for although other tracts may be found of equal fruitfulness, in no other Doáb does the cultivated land stretch so far back from the river banks. The entire District lies within the zone of virgin soil, the detritus of

the mountain system, which skirts the foot of the Himálayas. At places, a few acres are covered with a sandy layer; but, except in these rare spots, one vast sheet of luxuriant and diverse vegetation spreads over the plain from end to end. Neither rock nor stone crops out in any part, nor does any eminence occur deserving the name of a hill. The highest point in the plateau, at Ráhon, near the eastern corner of the District, has an elevation of 1012 feet above sea level. Somewhat farther to the west, at the little town of Hiún, the general height sinks to 969 feet; and from this point westward the surface gradually falls away toward the Beas valley. A well-defined bank marks the bed of the Sutlej on the Jalandhar side, below which stretches a tract of varying width, the *bet* or *khádar*, annually fertilized by the deposit of silt during the inundations, and productive of rich crops after their subsidence. The river contains in winter about 15 feet of water in its deepest parts, and it is navigable at all seasons for large flat-bottomed country boats. The main channel shifts from year to year through the wide bed, often forming new islands by slight changes in its course. The present stream runs at an average distance of 6 miles from the high bank. The Beas touches upon the District for a few miles only, being generally separated from it by the intervention of Kapurthála State. It has a broad belt of *bet* or lowland on its southern shore, similar to that of the Sutlej, and equally productive. The torrents from the Siwálik Hills in Hoshiárpur District eventually unite in two main streams, the White and the Black Ben, the former of which runs through the whole of Jalandhar, while the latter holds the greater portion of its course through Kapurthála territory. The White Ben receives numerous affluents from the Hoshiárpur Hills, which meet it at right angles; and, following a serpentine path in a deep channel, finally falls into the Sutlej 4 miles above its junction with the Beas. Several marshy lakes (*jhíls*) collect a considerable quantity of water in the rains, which they retain throughout the dry season. The largest is that of Ráhon, at the eastern corner of the District.

History.—The Jalandhar Doáb at a very early period formed a separate Hindu kingdom, ruled over by a family of Chandrabansi Rájputs, whose descendants still exist in the petty princes of the Kángra Hills. These Rájás trace their origin to Susarma Chandra, one of the heroes of the great war recounted in the *Mahábhárata*, who retired from his ancestral realm of Múltán (Mooltan) at the conclusion of that famous conflict, and founded the kingdom of Kátoch or Traigartta in the Jalandhar Doáb. The Chinese Buddhist pilgrim Hiouen Thsang, in the 7th century A.D., describes it as a large territory, including not only the present District, together with the Hoshiárpur and Kángra Hills, but also the modern States of Chamba, Mandi, and Sirhind. Jalandhar then formed its capital, but Kángra ranked as an important strong-

hold. We have no evidence of the period at which the Rájput princes were driven out of their dominions in the plain country, and restricted to the hill tract over which their descendants still hold sway. A legend in the *Padma Purána* ascribes the foundation of Jalandhar (Jullundur) city to the great Daitya King Jalandhara, who became invincible by the practice of unusual austerities. At length, however, Siva conquered him by a disgraceful fraud, and the Yoginis or female demons devoured his body. A local version varies the tale by declaring that the giant king was crushed to death under a mass of mountains, imposed on him by Siva; whereupon flames burst forth from his mouth, which lay under Jawála Mukhi, while his feet extended to the apex of the Doáb at Múltán. Under the Muhammadan rule, the Jalandhar Doáb was generally attached to the Province of Lahore, in which it is included as a *sarkár* in the great revenue survey of Akbar's reign. Its governors, however, seem usually to have held a partially independent position, subject to the payment of a fixed tribute into the imperial treasury. The last and most famous among them, Adína Beg, played an important part during the downfall of Muhammadan power in the Punjab. The Síkh reaction extended to Jalandhar at an early period, and a number of petty chieftains established themselves by force of arms as independent princes throughout the Doáb. In 1766 A.D., the town of Jalandhar fell into the hands of the Síkh *misl*, or confederacy of Faiz-ullá-puria, then presided over by Khushhal Sinh. His son and successor, Budh Sinh, built a masonry fort in the city, while several other leaders similarly fortified themselves in the suburbs. Meanwhile, however, Ranjít Sinh was consolidating his power in the south; and in 1811, he despatched Diwán Mokham Chand to annex the Faiz-ullá-puria dominions in the Jalandhar Doáb. Budh Sinh fled across the Sutlej, and though his troops offered some little resistance to the invader, the Mahárájá successfully established his authority in the autumn of the same year. Thenceforth Jalandhar became the capital of the Lahore possessions in the surrounding Doáb up till the date of British annexation. The petty *sardárs* were gradually ousted from their estates, and the whole country brought under the direct management of the Síkh governors. Here, as elsewhere, the fiscal administration of the Síkhs proved very oppressive, especially under the last official appointed from the Court of Lahore, Shaikh Ghulám Mohi-ud-dín, a tyrannical and grasping ruler, who exacted irregular taxes, and made over the tract to his son, Imám-ud-dín. Neither of these persons resided regularly in the Doáb, their charge being entrusted to lieutenants, the best known of whom were Sandi Khán in Hoshiárpur, and Karím Baksh in Jalandhar. At the close of the first Síkh war, immediately after the occupation of Lahore, the British Government annexed the whole tract of land between the Sutlej and the Beas, and

erected the new acquisition into a Commissionership of the trans-Sutlej States. For two years the administration was directly dependent upon the Supreme Government. In 1848, however, the Commissioner became subordinate to the Resident at Lahore; and in the succeeding year, when events forced upon us the annexation of the entire Punjab, the administration of this Division was assimilated to the general system. The Commissioner's headquarters were fixed at Jalandhar, and three Districts were erected, having their centres at Jalandhar, Hoshiárpur, and Kángra. The assessment of the revenue at the first introduction of British rule disregarded the excessive demands of Ghulám Mohi-ud-dín and his son, and followed the milder system of his predecessor, Misr Rúp Lál, a Síkh ruler of exceptional humanity and justice, whose fiscal arrangements were found not unworthy of adoption even under our own Government.

Population.—Jalandhar ranks first in the density of its population amongst all the Punjab Districts, and is only exceeded by those of Benares, Jaunpur, and Gházípur in the North-Western Provinces. The Census of 1855 returned the population of the area at present included in the District at 698,169; the Census of 1868 shows an increase of 96,595 persons, or 13·83 per cent. These figures do not include the inhabitants of a tract of 49 square miles, transferred to Kapurthála between the two dates. The enumeration of 1868 was taken over an area of 1332 square miles; and it disclosed a total population of 794,764 souls, distributed among 1268 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 242,577 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 596; villages per square mile, 0·95; houses per square mile, 181; persons per village, 626; persons per house, 3·27. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 436,689; females, 358,075; proportion of males, 54·95 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 148,609; females, 123,730; total children, 272,339, or 34·26 per cent. of the whole population. As regards religious distinctions, Hindus numbered 318,401; Muhammadans, 358,427; Síkhs, 117,167; and 'others,' 769. These figures show percentages of 40·06, 45·09, 14·74, and 0·10 respectively. The ethnical division returns 194,410 Játs, of whom 160,827 are Hindus or Síkhs. They are an industrious, thriving race, who hold almost half of the land, and pay more than half the revenue. The Rájputs number 33,593 souls, of whom all but 1368 are Muhammadans. Once the lords of the country, they are now sinking into the utmost poverty. The other races include 31,349 Bráhmans; 26,859 Kshattriyas; 18,022 Gujars; 7325 Sayyids; 6845 Kambohs; 4727 Patháns; and 4684 Banias. The District contained 11 municipal towns in 1875-76, whose names and populations were as follows:—JALANDHAR

(Jullundur), 48,933; KARTARPUR, 10,953; ALAWALPUR, 4873; ADAMPUR, 3269; BANGA, 4508; NAWASHAHR, 4946; RAHON, 14,394; PHILLAUR, 7535; NURMAHAL, 7866; MAHATPUR, 6374; and NAKODAR, 8800. The following towns had also populations exceeding 5000 in 1868; BASTI SHAIKH, 8000; BILGA, 6441; JANDIALA, 6439; MALSIAN, 6286; and RURKHA KALAN, 5721. The language in common use is Punjábí, but the peasantry generally understand Urdu.

Agriculture.—The District contains a total cultivated area of 657,094 acres, of which 200,097 acres are artificially irrigated. Wheat, barley, and gram form the staples of the *rabí* or spring harvest, tobacco and poppy being the only other important items. For the *kharíf* or autumn harvest, sugar-cane ranks as the most valuable crop; while millet, Indian corn, and other common food grains also cover a considerable area. The lowlands of the Sutlej produce limited quantities of rice, and cotton and hemp are largely grown as autumn crops. *Bájra* is almost unknown. The acreage under the chief staples in 1872-73 was as follows:—Wheat, 307,831 acres; barley, 18,384 acres; gram, 54,171 acres; rice, 11,014 acres; sugar-cane, 27,746 acres; Indian corn, 124,760 acres; *joár*, 106,244 acres; cotton, 27,113 acres; *moth*, 38,791 acres. The total area for the *rabí* in the same year was 401,085 acres; and for the *kharíf*, 407,438 acres. Rotation of crops is only practised in the simple form of sowing land with spring crops after a long continuance of autumn staples, and *vice versa*. Manure is used near the towns, but not so largely as is desirable. Except on the low alluvial tract of the Sutlej, irrigation is carried on only by means of wells, worked with Persian wheels. In a few villages along the high bank of the Ben, also, Persian wheels are worked from the river. But water everywhere lies near the surface, and is absolutely necessary for the higher cereals and sugar-cane, so that well irrigation prevails very generally. The distribution of the land among individual proprietors has proceeded to a very great extent. Nearly one-half of the tenants possess rights of occupancy. Rents range from 14s. 10½d. per acre for unirrigated wheat lands, to £2, 8s. 6d. for rice, £2, 11s. 1½d. for cotton, £2, 17s. for sugar, and £4, 11s. 6d. for tobacco. Agricultural labourers receive their payment in kind. In towns, where cash wages prevail, they range from 2¼d. to 4½d. per diem for unskilled workmen. Prices of food-stuffs ruled as follows in 1873:—Wheat and gram, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; barley, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 31 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 7d. per cwt.; *joár*, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The traffic of the District consists mainly in its agricultural produce. In ordinary years, grain is imported from Ludhiána, Firozpur, and the adjoining Síkh States, for export to the hills; but in 1873-74, the favourable seasons in Jalandhar, combined

with the high prices elsewhere, caused a large quantity of surplus grain to flow towards Agra and Bengal. Sugar-cane forms the chief commercial crop, and sugar and molasses are largely manufactured throughout the District, to supply the markets of Bíkaner, Lahore, the Punjab, and Sind. English piece-goods and draught cattle constitute the chief items of the import trade. Cotton cloth, silver wire, and gold and silver lace are manufactured at Jalandhar town. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway enters the District by an iron bridge across the Sutlej, and has stations at Phillaur, Phagwára (in Kapurthála State), Jalandhar cantonment, Jalandhar town, and Kartárpur (for Kapurthála town). The Grand Trunk Road crosses the Sutlej by a bridge of boats at Phillaur, runs nearly parallel to the railway, and leaves the District a few miles beyond Kartárpur. The Hoshiárpur and Kángra road is also metalled. The District contains a total length of 215 miles of unmetalled road. The telegraph is in operation along the railway and the Grand Trunk Road.

Administration.—The District staff usually comprises a Deputy Commissioner, one or two Assistant Commissioners, and two or more extra-Assistant Commissioners, of whom one is a European, besides the usual fiscal and medical officers. The total revenue raised in the District in 1872-73 amounted to £163,619; of which sum the land tax contributed £132,561, or more than four-fifths. The incidence of the land revenue is the heaviest in the Punjab, in spite of which it is collected with great facility. The regular police force in the same year consisted of 375 officers and men, supplemented by 102 municipal, 52 cantonment, 10 special, and 2 ferry policemen. These figures show a total of 540 constables, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 2·46 square miles of area and every 1471 of the population. The total number of persons brought to trial for all offences committed throughout the year was 5281. The District jail received during the same year 977 prisoners, with a daily average of 339. Education was carried on in 1875-76 by means of 165 aided schools, with a total roll of 7876 pupils, giving an average of 1 school to every 8·03 square miles, and 9·9 scholars to every thousand of the population. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 4 *tahsíls* and 9 *thánás*, with a total of 1248 villages, owned by 86,969 proprietors or shareholders. The 11 municipal towns had an aggregate revenue of £4833, or 9¼d. per head of the population (122,451) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The proximity of the hills renders the climate of Jalandhar comparatively moist, and the annual rainfall for the seven years ending 1872-73 amounted to 28·6 inches. Malarious fever in an endemic form proves the chief cause of mortality, but small-pox often appears as an epidemic, and dysenteric complaints are of frequent

occurrence. The total number of deaths recorded in 1872 was 23,834, or 30 per thousand; of which 14,327, or 18·30 per thousand, were due to fever alone. There are 5 Government charitable dispensaries in the District, which afforded relief in 1872 to 34,308 persons, of whom 496 were in-patients. Their joint revenue amounted to £689, of which sum £157 was contributed by private subscription.

Jalandhar (*Jullundur*).—Northern *tahsíl* of Jalandhar District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 12′ to 31° 37′ N., long. 75° 28′ 15″ to 75° 51′ 30″ E.

Jalandhar (*Jullundur*).—Municipal city, cantonment, and administrative headquarters of Jalandhar District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 19′ 50″ N., long. 75° 37′ 20″ E.; pop. (1868), 50,067, consisting of 15,921 Hindus, 33,601 Muhammadans, 468 Síkhs, and 77 Christians. Situated on the open plain; traversed by the Grank Trunk Road, and the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. Jalandhar lays claim to considerable antiquity, having been the original capital of the Rájput kingdom of Kátoch, which dates back to the period anterior to Alexander's invasion, and is referred to the mythical epoch of the *Mahábhárata.* Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim of the 7th century A.D., describes the town as 2 miles in circuit, the metropolis of a considerable State. Two ancient tanks alone attest the existence of the primitive Aryan city. Ibráhim Sháh of Ghazní reduced the town to the Muhammadan yoke, and it appears as a place of considerable strength during the early Musalmán times. Under the Mughal Empire it formed the capital of the Doáb between the Sutlej and the Beas. (*See* JALANDHAR DISTRICT.) The modern city consists of a cluster of wards, originally distinct, and each enclosed by a wall of its own. Some of them still remain detached, but the majority have now coalesced into one; the houses between the walls have sprung up irregularly of late years. Numerous important suburbs, known as *bastis*, surround the city at distances of a mile or more. There is a fine *sarái*, built by Shaikh Karím Baksh, the local representative of Imám-ud-dín. The American Presbyterian Mission maintains an excellent school, which educates up to the matriculation standard of the Calcutta University. The trade, though considerable, presents little special interest. The staples of local traffic are English piece-goods and country produce. Railway stations both at the city and cantonments. The total value of the trade in 1871-72 amounted to £105,248 for imports, and £96,020 for exports. The cantonment stands at a distance of 4 miles from the city, and was established in 1846. It has an area of 7¼ square miles, and a population (1868) of 11,634 persons. The troops in garrison usually include 1 European infantry regiment, 1 battery of artillery, 1 regiment of Native infantry, and a detachment of Native cavalry from Umballa. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £2367, or 11½d. per head of population (48,933) within municipal limits.

Jalangí (also called *Khariá*).—One of the three great rivers of Nadiyá District, Bengal; the other two being the BHAGIRATHI and the MATABHANGA. All three streams are offshoots of the Padmá, and they are generally known as 'the Nadiyá Rivers.' Reference is made in the article on NADIYA DISTRICTS to the importance and difficulty of keeping these rivers open for navigation, and a very complete summary of the means taken by Government to effect this object will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. ii. pp. 19-32. The Padmá (pronounced Păddă), which is here the main stream of the Ganges, throws off the Jalangí at the point where it enters Nadiyá District (lat. 24° 11′ N., long. 88° 49′ E.). From this starting-point, the Jalangí flows in an exceedingly tortuous course along the north-west of the District, forming, for a distance of 50 miles (between the villages of Jalangí and Rámnagar), the boundary between Nadiyá and Murshidábád Districts. It then turns to the south, and, after innumerable windings, reaches Krishnagar, the chief town of the District, which is situated on its left bank. From Krishnagar, the river flows west until it meets the Bhágirathí at Nadiyá town. The united stream thus formed takes the name of the HUGLI. The principal marts on the banks of the river are, besides Krishnagar, Karímpur, Chápra, and Swarúpganj; the trade is chiefly in grain, oil-seeds, and molasses. The rental of the Jalangí fisheries is valued at £200 per annum. During the rainy season, the Jalangí is navigable by large native boats up to about 4 tons burthen, but in the hot weather it is fordable at many points.

Jalárapetta.—Town in Salem District, Madras.—*See* JOLLARPET.

Jaláun.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 46′ and 26° 26′ N. lat., and between 78° 59′ and 79° 55′ E. long., with an area of 1553 square miles, and a population (Parliamentary Blue-Book 1878) of 404,447 persons. Jaláun is the northern District of the Jhánsi Division. It is bounded on the north-east and north by the river Jumna (Jamuná), on the west by the Gwalior and Datia States, on the south by the Samthar State and the river Betwa, and on the east by the Báoni State. The administrative headquarters are at URAI, but the most populous town in the District is KALPI.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Jaláun lies entirely within the level plain of Bundelkhand, north of the hill country, and almost surrounded by the Jumna and its tributaries, the Betwa and the Pahúj. The central region thus enclosed is a dead level of cultivated land, almost destitute of trees, and sparsely dotted with villages, many of them for long uninhabited. The southern portion especially presents one unbroken sheet of cultivation. Nearer to the rivers, the small streams have excavated for themselves a series of ravines, which drain the higher land dry, and so impoverish the soil. The sides of these

ravines, which are covered with grass and jungle, compose the greater portion of the waste lands in the District. A few stunted trees also grow upon their slopes. The boundary rivers form the only interesting feature in Jaláun. Of these, the great stream of the Jumna is the chief. Its banks, here as elsewhere, are high on the southern side; but its bed is obstructed by numerous sandbanks and shallows. The Pahúj, which forms the western boundary for the greater part of its course, has steep and rocky banks; and the Betwa, to the south, is rapid and unnavigable. The little river Non flows through the centre of the District, which it drains instead of watering, by innumerable small ravines. As a whole, Jaláun is wanting in picturesqueness or beauty, but possesses great fertility and abundant agricultural resources, which, in the hands of a more enterprising and intelligent peasantry, might be easily developed into wealth and prosperity. Unfortunately, however, the general poverty and apathy of Bundelkhand at present weigh heavily upon the District, and greatly retard its progress.

History.—Before the Aryan immigration, the District, now known as Jaláun, appears to have been inhabited by Bhíls; but its early history, after the Aryan conquest, is as mythical as the annals of other Indian States. The first period concerning which anything can be recorded with certainty is that of the Nága dynasty, which lasted from the 1st to the 3rd century of our era. A short account of their rule has been given under the District of BANDA. After the dissolution of the Narwár monarchy, a period of dynastic struggles appears to have succeeded, during which the principal families of Bundelkhand in later ages rose for the first time into eminence. The eastern portion of the Nága dominions fell under the power of the Chandels; while the western Districts, including that of Jaláun, were ruled by a Rájput clan, the Kachhwáhas. They seem to have held the greater portion of the District until the invasion of the Bundelas in the 14th century. But the town of Kálpi on the Jumna, the gate of the west, was conquered for the Musalmán Princes of Ghor by Kutab-ud-dín as early as the year 1196 A.D. It was guarded by a strong Muhammadan garrison, and became the headquarters for the administration of all their territories beyond the Jumna, and the starting-point for their expeditions both into Bengal and the Deccan. When, early in the 14th century, the Bundelas, a race of hardy mountaineers, poured down from their southern fastnesses upon the fertile plain of the Betwa and the Pahúj, they occupied the greater part of Jaláun, and even succeeded for a short time in holding the fortified post of Kálpi. That important possession, however, was soon recovered by the Musalmáns, and passed with the rest of their territories under the sway of the Mughal Emperors. Akbar's governors at Kálpi maintained a nominal authority over the surrounding country; but the Bundela Rájás in the south were prac-

tically independent of the Court of Dehli. Under Jahángír and Sháh Jahán, the native princes were in a state of chronic revolt, which culminated in the war of independence under Chhatar Sál. On the outbreak of his rebellion in 1671, he occupied a large Province to the south of the Jumna, including the modern District of Jaláun. Setting out from this base, he reduced the whole of Bundelkhand, in which task he was assisted by the Marhattás, then for the first time overrunning Central India under their earliest Peshwá, Báji Ráo. Chhatar Sál died in 1734, and left by his will one-third of his dominions to his Marhattá ally, on condition that his descendants should be maintained in the remainder. The Marhattás displayed their usual alacrity in occupying the territory thus bequeathed them, and in making such additions as from time to time seemed practicable. Their governor had his headquarters at the important strategic post of Kálpi; and before long succeeded in quietly annexing the whole of Bundelkhand. Under Marhattá rule, the country was a prey to constant anarchy and intestine strife. The hills in the region south of the Betwa were crowned by the mud forts of robber chiefs, who swooped down upon the fertile plains, and left nothing to the miserable cultivators beyond the barest necessaries of life. To this period must be traced the origin of all the poverty and desolation which still, after nearly forty years of British rule, are conspicuous throughout the District. Our first connection with Jaláun arose from the treaty of Bassein in 1802. By that arrangement the Peshwá agreed to cede certain portions of territory for the support of a British force. In order to carry out these terms, a supplementary arrangement was made with Rájá Himmat Bahádur, by which his aid was purchased in exchange for a cession of lands. (*See* BANDA DISTRICT.) Kálpi and the surrounding country were included in this grant. Himmat Bahádur, however, died in 1804; and the *parganá* of Kálpi was thereupon handed over by the British to Náná Govind Ráo, who was in possession of the rest of the District. He had assisted Shamsher Bahádur, the Nawáb of Bánda, in his opposition to the British occupation; but, after two years, he submitted to the new rulers, and was restored to all his possessions. In 1806, Kálpi was finally made over to the British Government, in exchange for certain other villages, and it then formed part of the extensive District of Bundelkhand; but the remainder of Jaláun was left in the hands of Govind Ráo, and after his death passed to his son, and ultimately to his son's widow, a girl of only fourteen years. During the minority of her brother, whom she was permitted to adopt, the Jaláun State became wretchedly impoverished, and only yielded in 1838 one-fourth of the revenue which it was estimated to produce in 1803. The country fell almost into a wilderness, and many villages were entirely depopulated by emigration. Fortunately for Jaláun, the Náná died without issue in

1840, and his territories lapsed to Government. In the following year, Chirgáon, a neighbouring Native State, was annexed, owing to the rebellion of its chief. In 1844, three other *parganás* were ceded by Sindhia for the support of the Gwalior Contingent. At various later dates, portions of Jaláun were made over to Hamírpur, Jhánsi, and other surrounding Districts; and in 1856, the present boundaries were substantially settled. During the whole period of British rule before the Mutiny, Jaláun, like other portions of Bundelkhand, only recovered its prosperity by very slow degrees. The *zamíndárs* had been left heavily in debt, and almost ruined, by the government of Govind Ráo; and the assessments made at the various subsequent settlements followed, perhaps, too closely the native system. Property was so greatly depreciated, that in some cases no purchasers could be found for estates which had lapsed to the Government. This state of things continued down to the outbreak of the Mutiny in the spring of 1857. News of the rising at Cawnpore reached Kálpi early in June; and shortly afterwards, intelligence arrived that the Europeans at Jhánsi had been massacred. Thereupon the men of the 53d Native Infantry deserted their officers; and on the 15th of June, the Jhánsi mutineers reached the District, and murdered all the Europeans on whom they could lay their hands. Meanwhile, the Gúrsarái chief, Kesho Ráo, adopted a wavering policy, and assumed supreme authority in the District,—at first on the ground that it had been entrusted to him by the Deputy Commissioner, but afterwards on his own responsibility. He kept a few European officers as prisoners for some months, until after the defeat of the Náná and his flight from Cawnpore; but those events induced him to change his tone slightly, and to treat with General Neil for their restoration. After sending them in safety to Cawnpore, the chief established himself for a time at Jaláun; but upon the arrival of Tántia Topí in October, the usual anarchic quarrels arose. Kesho Ráo was deposed; his son was seized by the rebels; and the mutineers of Jaláun, joining those of Gwalior, set out for Cawnpore. Meanwhile, the natives everywhere revelled in the licence of plunder and murder which the Mutiny had spread through all Bundelkhand. In May 1868, after the fall of Jhánsi, Sir Hugh Rose's force entered the District, and routed the rebels at Kúnch. There he left some troops of the Gúrsarái chief, whose allegiance had returned with the advent of the British forces. A Deputy Commissioner was put in charge of the District at Kúnch, and Sir Hugh Rose advanced to attack the strong rebel position at Kálpi. On the 23d May, he drove them from that post, and shortly afterwards marched in pursuit towards Gwalior. Unfortunately he was unable to leave any troops in garrison, except a small body to guard the passage at Kálpi; and accordingly, on his withdrawal, the western portion of the District fell once more into anarchy. Plundering went on as before;

and in July and August, the rebels again attacked and pillaged Kúnch and Jaláun. The latter town was immediately recovered by a detachment from the garrison at Kálpi; but it was not till September that the guerilla leaders were defeated, and some further time elapsed before the work of reorganization could be effected. Since the Mutiny, the condition of Jaláun appears to have been steadily, if very slowly, improving; and it is to be hoped that the present lenient fiscal arrangements will conduce to the prosperity of this still backward region.

People.—All enumerations of the population previous to 1865 were so imperfect as to be practically useless, even if they were not rendered unavailable for purposes of comparison by great differences in the area of the District. The Census of 1865 showed the total number of inhabitants to be 405,604. In 1872, the population had decreased to 404,384, being a falling-off of 1220, or ·3 per cent. This is exclusive of 63 European inhabitants, which would bring the total population up to 404,447. The only cause for this decrease which can be suggested is the habit of emigrating under any pressure of famine or scarcity, which the District shares with the remainder of Bundelkhand. The Census of 1872 returned the villages at 971, of which 144 were uninhabited. The number of houses was returned at 88,977. These figures show the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 262·07; inhabited villages per square mile, 0·53; houses per square mile, 57·29; persons per inhabited village, 488; persons per house, 4·54. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of Europeans) 216,607 males and 187,777 females; proportion of males, 53·56 per cent. The preponderance of males may be accounted for partly by the habitual unwillingness of the Rájputs to state the number of their women; but it is perhaps due in part to the continuance of female infanticide, which all the vigilance of Government has been unable entirely to suppress. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years — males, 77,592; females, 63,286; total, 140,878, or 34·83 per cent. About 88 per cent. of the inhabitants belong to the rural, and 12 per cent. to the urban, population. No statistics with reference to the ethnical divisions and origin of the people have been collected. The principal landowning tribes are — Bráhmans, who hold as many as 198 villages; Kúrmís, with 107; Gújars, with 105; Kachhwáhas, with 84; Sengars, 62; Káyasths, 50; and Musalmáns, 34. The Kachhwáhas, who are Rájputs, are the leading clan of the District, and embrace most of the great native families. The Sengars, a clan originally Bráhman, but which has intermarried with Rájputs, and is now ranked amongst them, are also numerous and influential; during the Mutiny, they were conspicuous as plunderers. The Marhattá *pandits,* who formed part of the governing body till 1840, are few in

number, but wealthy; in 1857 they were almost unanimously rebellious. Many of them have since emigrated to Gwalior or to the Marhattá country. The Musalmáns have no social or political importance. As regards religious distinctions, Jaláun is a stronghold of Hinduism. In 1872, the Hindus numbered 378,260, or nearly 93 per cent.; while the faith of Islám could only reckon 26,124 believers, or about 7 per cent. There is no Christian settlement, nor has the Bráhma Samáj made any progress in the District. As regards occupations, 155,673 persons were returned as agriculturists, while 219,163 were otherwise employed. There were 4 towns in 1872 with a population exceeding 5000—namely, KALPI, 15,570; KUNCH, 14,448; JALAUN, 10,197; and URAI, 6398. The language in common use is a dialect of Hindí, but a corrupt form of Urdú is spoken in the Muhammadan villages.

Agriculture.—The staple crops of the District are cereals, gram, and cotton. Of these, gram occupies the largest area; and next in point ot acreage come wheat, and the two millets known as *joár* and *bájra*. Cotton was very extensively cultivated during the scarcity caused by the American war; and although the total out-turn is now only one-tenth of that produced in 1864, it still ranks fifth of all crops grown in Jaláun. About 5 *lákhs'* worth (say £50,000) is exported annually. Oil-seeds, dye-stuffs, and sugar-cane are also raised, but in no large quantities. The seasons are those prevalent throughout Bundelkhand,—the *kharíf* or rain crops, sown in June or August, consist chiefly of millets and cotton; the *rabí* or cold-weather crops, sown in November or December, are mainly gram and wheat. The total produce of grain is estimated at 2,987,292 *maunds*, or 2,194,745 cwts., of which 2,313,210 *maunds* are required for home consumption; leaving 674,081 *maunds*, or 495,241 cwts., valued at £134,816, for export. Rotation of crops is practised to a slight extent, and exhausting staples are sown only after long periods of rest. Manuring is not resorted to, except in the case of sugar-cane and other expensive produce. The practice is, however, on the increase, about 4·56 per cent. of the cultivated area being so treated at present. Irrigation was employed in 1872 over 19,157 acres. Of this area, 7719 acres, situated in *parganá* Kúnch to the south of the District, are watered by the natural channel known as the *pau*, which flows from the uplands in the Native State of Samthar. The remainder, amounting to 11,438 acres, is artificially irrigated from wells; only an insignificant fraction being supplied from tanks. A scheme is on foot, however, for damming up the Betwa, and distributing abundant irrigation by means of canals. Jaláun has suffered much, like the surrounding Districts, from the noxious *káns* grass. By its spread many villages have been abandoned and their lands thrown out of cultivation. The condition of the peasantry is

still far from comfortable; their houses and villages are squalid, and the usual apathetic poverty of Bundelkhand is noticeable in their dress and surroundings. Both *zamíndárs* and cultivators are generally deeply in debt to the village banker; and they have learned to look upon such indebtedness as the normal economical state. About one-half of the land is held by cultivators possessing rights of occupancy. A holding of 90 acres is considered large; one of 20 to 25 acres, a fair middle-sized farm. Rents run from 2s. 7d. to 7s. 6d. per acre, according to the nature of the soil. The average rate on all classes of land is 5s. 4½d. per acre. Profits are hoarded, or spent in jewellery for the women; nothing is employed as capital in land improvements or investment. Wages have risen much of late years; the chief causes being the rise in price of food-stuffs, the increased demand for labour on the railways, and the cessation of the former stream of immigrants from Oudh, whose people now find employment and security under British rule in their own country. These various influences have produced a rise of 25 per cent. during the last ten years. In 1873, the wages of tailors were 7½d. per diem; carpenters, blacksmiths, head-masons, 6d. per diem; common masons, road makers, 3d. to 4½d.; boys, 2¼d.; women and children, ¾d. to 1½d. Agricultural wages are paid to a great extent in kind. The average prices of the chief food-grains in 1867 (in Jaláun *parganá*) were as follows:—Gram, 24 *sers* the rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; *joár*, 28 *sers* the rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; wheat, 15 *sers* the rupee, or about 7s. 5½d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Drought is the great danger to be apprehended in Jaláun. Famine or scarcity from that cause occurred in 1783, in 1833, in 1837, and in 1848. The last important drought was that in August and September of 1868. Two-thirds of the autumn, and one-half of the cold-weather crops were destroyed. No actual famine resulted, but great distress prevailed, especially in the remoter southern villages, until the summer of 1869. The surplus grain of the Doáb passed through Kálpi southward and westward in large quantities. At Urái, rations of 1 lb. per adult and ½ lb. per child were distributed by Government. Large numbers were also assisted by private charity at Kálpi. In the south, considerable relief works were opened in the shape of road-making and excavation of tanks. The total cost of the relief operations amounted to £1864, and the average number of persons daily relieved was 1800. The maximum price of gram during the scarcity was 9 *sers* 3 *chhatáks* the rupee, or about 12s. 2¼d. per cwt. Jaláun is more favourably situated for communication with the Doáb, *viâ* Kálpi, than any other District of the Jhánsi Division; but even here the agricultural population suffered much hardship, and lost one-third of their cattle. It was necessary to suspend the collection of a large portion of the revenue; but no advances were needed for the purpose of buying seed, as was the case in neighbouring Districts to the south.

Commerce and Trade.—Jaláun is almost entirely an agricultural District, and its chief exports are cotton and grain. Kálpi is the great mart of the District, through which traffic passes north-westward by Cawnpore, and south-eastward toward Mírzápur and Calcutta. Kúnch is also a considerable trading town. The business of the outlying villages is chiefly conducted at fairs, where English cloth and other European goods are beginning to make their appearance. There are scarcely any manufactures of sufficient importance to deserve record. Coarse cotton cloth is woven for home use; and the dyeing of such fabrics with the red *al* dye, obtained from the root of Morinda citrifolia grown in the District, is the staple industry of the principal towns. No mines or forests exist in Jaláun. The communications are moderately good. The river traffic by Kálpi is chiefly for through goods; and the Jumna is little used as a highway. The nearest railway station is at Phaphúnd on the East Indian line, which is connected with the towns of Urái and Jaláun by a good commercial road, crossing the river at Shergarh. There is also a great military road from Kálpi to Jhánsi, metalled throughout. In times of flood, however, the Betwa and the Pahúj are often impassable for days.

Administration.—It is almost impossible to give any intelligible account of the fiscal history in this District within reasonable limits, owing to the frequent changes, transfers, and redistribution of villages and *parganás* made with the surrounding Districts and Native States. When Jaláun was first taken over by the British Government from the family of Govind Ráo, it was already greatly impoverished by their misgovernment. The existing assessments were found to be too high, and successive reductions became necessary from time to time. After the Mutiny, a lighter settlement was introduced, which seems to be working beneficially for the restoration of agricultural prosperity. The revenue in 1860 amounted to £128,026, and the expenditure to £47,601, or rather more than one-third of the revenue. In 1870, the receipts had fallen to £112,128, and the expenditure to £24,813, or rather more than one-fifth of the revenue. The immense difference in the expenditure at these two dates, amounting to a decrease of nearly one-half, is chiefly due to the great retrenchment in the items of justice, police, and public works. The land tax in 1870 contributed £98,373, or 87 per cent. of the total revenue. The other principal items were assessed taxes, stamps, and fees in courts of justice. The administration is on the non-regulation system, which unites civil, criminal, and fiscal functions in the same officer. The District is administered by 1 Deputy Commissioner, 2 Assistant Commissioners, 3 extra-Assistant Commissioners, and 5 *tahsíldárs.* It contains 25 police stations. The regular police in 1871 numbered 618 men, maintained at a cost of £8484, of which £7395 was paid from imperial revenues. There

were also 1180 village watchmen, paid at the rate of 3 rupees a month. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted in 1871 of 1861 men, giving 1 man to every 0·83 square mile of the area and to every 217 of the population. The statistics of crime in the same year were as follows:—Murder, 4 cases; robbery, 1; house-trespass, 459; theft, 490. There were 699 persons tried and 488 convicted. The convictions thus amounted to 1 for every 828 inhabitants. There is 1 jail in the District, the average daily number of prisoners in which was 122 in 1870, or ·030 per cent. of the population. The cost per prisoner amounted to £5, 7s. 1⅛d.; and the average earnings of each prisoner were £2, 1s. 0⅛d. Education has been progressing slowly of late years. In 1860, there were 1434 children under instruction; in 1871, the number had increased to 2703. The District is divided into 5 fiscal divisions, with an aggregate in 1870 of 1033 estates, owned by 2232 registered proprietors or coparceners. The average land revenue from each estate was £85, 6s., and from each coparcener, £39, 10s. The District contains 3 municipalities—Urái, Kálpi, and Kúnch. In 1875-76, their joint revenue amounted to £2943, and their expenditure to £2695. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 2⅞d. per head of their population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Jaláun, though hot and dry, is not considered unhealthy. The mean temperature is about 81·9° F. for the whole year; the monthly averages being as follows:—January, 65°; Febuary, 75·5°; March, 80°; April, 90°; May, 96·5°; June, 95·2°; July, 90·2°; August, 87·2°; September, 86·2°; October, 82·5°; November, 68·2°; and December, 66°. The rainfall for the ten years preceding 1871 was as follows:—1861-62, 33·3 inches; 1862-63, 35·5 inches; 1863-64, 35·1 inches; 1864-65, 20·7 inches; 1865-66, 21·2 inches; 1866-67, 29·6 inches; 1867-68, 44·5 inches; 1868-69 (the year of scarcity), 13·2 inches; 1869-70, 32·8 inches; and 1870-71, 42·6 inches.

The prevailing diseases of Jaláun are fevers, dysentery, and other bowel complaints. The total number of deaths recorded in 1871 was 8852, being at the rate of 21·84 to each thousand inhabitants, of which 16·2 per thousand were assigned to fevers. The endemic diseases are chiefly attributable to bad drainage, impure water, and dirty habits. The want of shade not only induces a dry and hot atmosphere, but is also answerable for much sickness. Rinderpest broke out in the District in 1870, but was repressed by a rigorous system of segregation and quarantine before it had caused any serious loss.

Jaláun.—Central northern *tahsíl* of Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a level plain, stretching inward from the southern bank of the Jumna. Area, 323 square miles, of which 242 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 91,438; land revenue, £21,620; total

Government revenue, £23,886; rental paid by cultivators, £42,952; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 1⅛d.

Jaláun.—Decayed town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces, and former capital of a Native State. Lat. 26° 8′ 32″ N., long. 79° 22′ 42″ E.; pop. (1872), 10,197, consisting of 8824 Hindus and 1373 Muhammadans. Occupies a large area, and contains a considerable number of good houses, and a ruined fort, demolished in 1860, the former residence of the Marhattá Subahdárs. The principal inhabitants are Marhattá Bráhmans, known as Dakhíni Pandits, whose ancestors held offices under the Peshwá's deputy. The position is low, and swamps surrounding the town engender cholera and malarious fever, for which reason the headquarters of the District have been fixed at URAI, instead of in this place. *Tahsíli*, police station, dispensary, school. No manufactures, little trade. The population is on the decrease. A good road runs to Shergarh ferry on the Jumna, 14 miles from Phaphúnd station on the East Indian Railway.

Jáldhaká.—River of Northern Bengal, rising in the Bhután Hills. Flows from north to south, marking the boundary between the British District of Dárjíling and the State of Bhután; passes through Jalpáigurí District; sweeps eastward into Kuch Behar, and, after a south-easterly course, joins the DHARLA or TORSHA RIVER, with which it has several cross communications, near the trading villages of Durgápur and Gitaldaha in that State. In the upper part of its course, the Jáldhaká is called the De-chu; its principal tributaries in Dárjíling District being the Parálang-chu, Rang-chu, and Ma-chu, all on its right bank. In the lower part of its course, the Jáldhaká is known as the Singímárí; its chief affluents in Jalpáigurí are the Murtí and the Dina,—in Kuch Behar, the Mujnái, Satanga, Duduyá, Dolang, and Dálkhoá. The Jáldhaká is a fine wide river, but very shallow in proportion to its breadth.

Jalesar.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces, lying in the Doáb plain, but much intersected by ravines along the banks of the Isan Nadi. Area, 286 square miles, of which 204 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 157,775; land revenue, £30,416; total Government revenue, £33,523; rental paid by cultivators, £56,661; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 3¾d.

Jalesar.—Municipal town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 28′ N., long. 78° 20′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 15,694. Situated on the Doáb plain, 38 miles east of the Jumna and of Muttra. Station on the East Indian Railway, at Jalesar road. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1158; from taxes, £826, or 11⅛d. per head of population (17,622) within municipal limits.

Jaleswar (popularly *Jellasore*).—An old border town between Bengal and Orissa, now within the north-east boundary of Balasor Dis-

trict; situated in lat. 21° 47′ 20″ N., and long. 87° 13′ 35″ E., on the Calcutta high road. Pop. (1870), 3457. The name is also applied to an ancient Muhammadan circle or *sarkár*, which comprised the present Midnapur District, including Hijili. During the last century, the East Indian Company had a factory at Jaleswar, and established some sort of order along the neighbouring frontier. On the abolition of the Company's factory, the town ceased to have any external importance as a seat of trade.

Jalgáon.—Municipal town in the Nasírábád (Nusseerabad) Subdivision of Khandesh District, Bombay; station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 261 miles north-east of Bombay. Lat. 20° 25′ N., long. 74° 33′ E.; pop. (1872), 6893; municipal revenue (1874-75), £208; rate of taxation, 7¼d. per head. Seat of a sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary. Situated in the centre of a rich cotton-growing district, Jalgáon has during the last forty years risen to the position of an important mercantile town. Though for a time it suffered severely from the fall in the value of products at the close of the American war, its trade is now steadily recovering. There were in 1876 three full-power cotton presses, one large cotton ginning factory, and one cotton spinning and weaving mill, all worked by steam. In 1878, the number of looms was 206, and of spindles, 20,000. The Bombay Bank has opened a branch at Jalgáon, with an agent during the busy season, from November to May.

Jalgáon.—Village in Wardha District, Central Provinces; 6 miles north-west of Arvi, and 40 from Wardha. Pop. (1872), 2000, chiefly agriculturists. Fine *pán* and other gardens; 90 wells. Bi-weekly market; school.

Jalgáon - Jambod. — Town in Akola District, Berar; so called (from a village near to it) to distinguish it from Jalgáon in Khandesh. Lat. 21° 3′ N., long. 76° 35′ E.; 36 miles north-west of Akola, 8 miles south of the Sátpura Hills, and 17 miles from the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, the nearest stations being at Nándúra and Malkapur in Buldána District. Pop. (1867), 8763. A pass over the hills north of the town leads to Asírgarh and Burhánpur. Jalgáon is mentioned in the *Aín-i-Akbarí* as the head of a *parganá*. Spring water is abundant. In many large gardens, principally on the western side of the town, grapes, plantains, and betel creepers are grown. Weekly market. Average import of cotton, 5000 bullock-loads, of about 260 lbs. each. Contains the usual court-houses, a middle-class school, police station, charitable dispensary, and post office.

Jaliá Amraji.—One of the petty States in Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue is estimated at £220; and tribute of £12 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Jaliá Diwání.—One of the petty States in Hallár, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 10 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue is estimated at £1300; and tribute of £118 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £37 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Jaliá Manaji.—One of the petty States of Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue is estimated at £200; and tribute of £3 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Jálna.—Town in Haidarábád (Hyderabad) State, Southern India. Lat. 19° 50′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 56′ E.; 240 miles north-west of Sikandarábád (Secunderabad), 38 east of Aurangábád, and 210 miles north-east of Bombay. A British cantonment, situated on a gentle declivity, at an elevation of 1652 feet above the sea, in an arid tract of country. The lines, built in 1827, extend from south-east to north-west, and can accommodate a troop of horse artillery, one regiment of Native cavalry, and three regiments of Native infantry. Two miles south-west of Jálna is the old town of the same name, once the seat of a flourishing trade, but now rapidly decaying.

Jalori (or *Suket*).—Mountain range in Kángra District, Punjab; one of the minor Himálayan chains. It is an offshoot of the mid-Himálayan system, which traverses the Subdivision of Seoráj in Kullu, and throws off a lofty spur to the north, separated from the outer Himálaya or Dháola-dhar by the deep gorge of the Beas (Biás). It forms the dividing ridge between the affluents of that river and the watershed of the Sutlej (Satlej).

Jalpáigurí.—The north-eastern District of the Rájsháhí Kuch Behar Division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. It lies between 26° 0′ 35″ and 26° 59′ 30″ N. lat., and between 88° 22′ 40″ and 89° 55′ 20″ E. long., occupying an irregularly shaped tract south of Bhután and north of the State of Kuch Behar and Rangpur District. The area was returned in 1875 at 2905·64 square miles; and the population, according to two separate enumerations, numbers 418,048 persons. The Parliamentary Blue-Book of 1878 gives the population at 418,665. The administrative headquarters are at JALPAIGURI town, which is also a military station.

Physical Aspects.—From a geographical point of view, as well as for administrative purposes, the District divides into two distinct parts—the Regulation tract, lying towards the south-west, which originally formed portion of the settled District of Rangpur; and the strip of country, about 22 miles in width, running along the foot of the Himálayas, which was annexed from Bhután in 1865, and is known as the WESTERN DWARS. The former of these tracts resembles in all respects the neighbouring Districts. The continuous expanse of level paddy fields is only broken by the groves of bamboos, palms, and

fruit-trees, which encircle the homesteads of the *jotdárs*, or substantial tenant-farmers. The Western Dwárs are, for the most part, overgrown with grassy jungle, the secure home of large game. The country in this tract is everywhere traversed by hill torrents, which, on the higher slopes, lose themselves beneath the sandy soil. There are a few valuable *sál* forests, now reserved by Government. Cultivation is confined to the neighbourhood of the thinly scattered villages. During the last few years, tea-planting has been introduced, with every promise of success. In 1876-77, the number of plantations was 13, covering an area of 818 acres, and yielding 29,520 lbs. of tea.

In the neighbourhood of the military outpost of Baxá, the frontier with Bhután is formed by the Sinchulá mountain range, some peaks of which attain an elevation of 6000 feet. It is thickly wooded from base to summit. The principal rivers, proceeding from west to east, are the MAHANANDA, KARATOYA, TISTA, JALDHAKA, DUDUYA, MUJNAI, TORSHA, KALJANI, RAIDHAK, and SANKOS. Of these, the Tístá is the most considerable, forming a valuable means of water communication. The rivers all flow down from the hills in a southerly direction, and are navigable for the greater part of their course through the plains. They are constantly changing their main channels, and the country is everywhere seamed by deserted river-beds. The Government forest reserves in the Western Dwárs cover a total area of 342·54 square miles. There is also a valuable forest in the Regulation part of the District, the private property of the Ráikat of Baikunthpur. The only mineral is lime, which is largely quarried in the form of calcareous tufa along the lower Bhután Hills.

History.—The District of Jalpáigurí first came into existence in the year 1869, when the Titályá Subdivision of Rangpur was incorporated with the Western Dwárs, and erected into an independent revenue unit. The criminal jurisdiction alone had been assigned to the Deputy Commissioner of the Western Dwárs two years before; the civil jurisdiction was not finally transferred till 1870.

The permanently settled portion of Jalpáigurí has no history of its own, apart from the parent District of Rangpur. Its boundaries are perplexingly intermingled with those of the Native State of Kuch Behar, from which it was conquered by the Muhammadans in comparatively recent times. At the present day, by far the wealthiest landowners are the Rájá of Kuch Behar himself, and the Ráikat of Baikunthpur, who is descended from a younger branch of the Kuch Behar family. This tract is administered in accordance with the ordinary Regulations and Acts in force throughout Bengal.

The Western Dwárs became British territory as the result of the war with Bhután in 1864-65. That war had been provoked by the gross insults offered to a British ambassador by the Bhutiá Government in

1863. As no apologies were offered, it was resolved forthwith to effect by force of arms the permanent annexation of the Dwárs; by which step a command would be gained over the hill passes, and a race closely allied with the people of Bengal would be delivered from Bhutiá anarchy. Accordingly, in December 1864, four strong military columns made a simultaneous advance, and occupied the Dwárs and the hill posts above, after slight opposition. But in the beginning of 1865, the Bhutiás recovered heart. They threatened in force the whole line of British outposts, and drove away the garrison at Díwángirí with the loss of two mountain guns. The abandoned post was speedily recovered; and before the close of the year, the Bhutiás consented to accept the terms of peace which had been offered to them before the outbreak of hostilities, and, in addition, to surrender the two guns they had captured. By this treaty the Dwárs were ceded in perpetuity to the British Government; and an annual allowance of £2500 was granted to Bhután, which sum may be increased to £5000, or withdrawn altogether at the option of the British. Since that date our relations with Bhután have been entirely peaceful, and the frontier raids, which were previously of common occurrence, have altogether ceased.

The newly acquired territory was immediately formed into the two Districts of the Eastern and Western Dwárs, of which the former has been since incorporated with the Assam District of Goálpárá. In 1867, the Dálingkot Subdivision of the Western Dwárs, which lies high up among the mountains, was annexed to Dárjíling; and the remainder, as already mentioned, was formed into the new District of Jalpáigurí, with the addition of a portion taken from the unwieldy jurisdiction of Rangpur. The Dwárs are still administered in a provisional manner, being reckoned as a non-regulation tract. The entire soil is held *khás*, or under direct Government management, temporary settlements being made with the actual cultivators; and a large portion has been reserved by the Forest Department. Great tenderness has been shown in all dealings with the nomad aboriginal population. A careful record was made of all rights and interests in the land at the time of the settlement in 1870, when an enumeration of the people and houses was also conducted. The regular Census of 1872 was confined to the permanently settled portion of the District. Cultivation is now rapidly extending through the Dwárs, wherever practicable; and the introduction of the tea-plant will open out a new source of prosperity. It is believed that the population has about doubled during the ten years that have elapsed since British annexation. From motives of precaution, a regiment of Native infantry is stationed in permanent cantonments at the hill pass of Baxá; and a smaller force is also posted at Jalpáigurí town.

People.—The Parliamentary Abstract of 1878 gives the population at 418,665, but the following calculations are based on the Census

of 1872, which was only taken in the permanently settled part of Jalpáigurí, which originally formed part of Rangpur; and even there it was found impossible to effect a simultaneous enumeration. The inhabitants of the Dwárs had been previously counted at the time of the settlement operations in 1870. These two enumerations yielded an aggregate population of 418,048 persons, inhabiting 70,246 houses; average density of the population per square mile, 144; average number of inmates per house, 5·8. The average density in the Dwárs is only 48 per square mile, against 320 in the Regulation tract. The returns from the Dwárs were not drawn up in the form adopted for Bengal generally; the following details, therefore, only apply to the remaining part, which has a total population of 327,985, or more than three-fourths of the whole. Classified according to sex, there are 169,288 males and 158,697 females; proportion of males, 51·6 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years — 66,779 males and 53,881 females; total, 65,420, or 36·8 per cent. of the total population. The occupation returns are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that the total number of male adults connected with agriculture is returned at 83,022, as against 50,562 male adult non-agriculturists. The ethnical division of the people shows — 25 Europeans; 7 Eurasians; 8 Chinese and 144 Nepálís; 553 aborigines; 148,043 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 32,155 Hindus subdivided according to caste; 2070 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste; 144,980 Muhammadans. The great bulk of the population belongs to the semi-Hinduized aboriginal tribe, known as Koch or Rájbansí, which numbers 137,135 in the permanently settled tract, and is ascertained to form as much as two-thirds of the total inhabitants in the Western Dwárs. To these figures there ought to be added a large proportion of those returned in the Census Report as Musalmáns, who are known historically to be of Koch descent. The headquarters of this race are in the adjoining State of Kuch Behar; but Kochs, Rájbansís, or Palís are thickly scattered through all Northern Bengal, from Assam to the frontier of Purniah. Among aboriginal tribes, the immigrant Uráons number 453, the Mechs only 40; but this latter race is strongly represented in the Dwárs, where they constitute about one-ninth of the population. They are identical with the Assam tribe of Cacharis, and probably connected with the Kochs. Their mode of agriculture is that known as *júm*, which consists in burning down a fresh patch of jungle land every year; on these clearings, rice, cotton, and mustard are grown together, the only agricultural implement used being the *dáo* or hill knife. Of the Hindus proper, the most numerous caste is that of Tántis or weavers, numbering 4034; Bráhmans number 1275; Rájputs, 523; and Káyasths, 587. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of—Hindus,

182,375, or 55·6 per cent.; Musalmáns, 144,980, or 44·2 per cent.; 'others,' 586, or ·2 per cent. The native Christians are returned at only 4 persons; the Vaishnavs at 1877. The Bráhma Samáj is represented by about 20 members, who meet regularly at Jalpáigurí town.

The population is of a purely rural character. There is no town with as many as 5000 inhabitants, and even trading villages are few. The only places worth mention are JALPAIGURI town on the Tístá river, which is distinguished from other villages merely by the civil offices and military cantonments; the prosperous mart of Baurá, also on the Tístá; the military outpost of BAXA, half-way up the Sinchulá mountains; and the wide-spread ruins of the city of Prithu Rájá, one of the fabled monarchs of the early kingdom of Kámrúp. Small forts, temples, and tanks, built by Hindus or Muhammadans, abound in the south-western corner of the District, which formed, two centuries ago, the extreme limit of the Mughal empire.

Agriculture.—Rice constitutes the staple crop in all parts of the District. Of the total food supply, the *áman* or *haimantik* rice, sown on low-lying lands and reaped in winter, forms from 60 to 75 per cent.; the remainder is made up by the *áus* or *bhadaí* rice, sown on high lands and reaped in September, and by wheat and barley. Mustard seed is extensively grown throughout the District; cotton is the export staple of the Dwárs, jute and tobacco of the Regulation tract. Manure, in the form of cow-dung, is used by all cultivators for special crops, the quantity being determined by the number of cattle that they own. Irrigation is commonly practised in the Western Dwárs. *Aman* rice land is never suffered to lie fallow, but the other crops are known to grow better after the soil has enjoyed an occasional rest. There is still some spare land uncultivated in the Regulation tract; and in the Western Dwárs it has been estimated that about three-fourths of the land now waste is capable of cultivation. The average produce of paddy or unhusked rice from an acre of land is about 22 cwts., worth from £2 to £3. In the Dwárs, the rent of rice land varies from 1s. to 6s. per acre; in the remainder of the District, from 2s. to 7s. 6d. Jute land lets at somewhat higher rates. The land in the Western Dwárs is managed as the immediate property of Government; in the Regulation tract, the *zamíndárs* are the proprietors, subject only to the payment of a fixed revenue. But the subordinate tenures in either case are much the same. First comes the *jotdár*, who usually possesses a permanent interest in his farm, and has under-tenants called *chukánidárs* or *mulándárs*. The actual cultivator is the *prájá*, who has no rights in the soil, but is allowed to retain a share of the produce. It has been the object of the recent settlement in the Western Dwárs to fix the relative positions of these several parties.

The rate of wages in Jalpáigurí are somewhat arbitrary, as the majority of the day-labourers are immigrants from Chutiá Nágpur or Behar.

In 1871, coolies received from 4½d. to 6d. a day; skilled workmen could earn from £1 to £2 a month. These rates are considerably higher than used to be paid before the Bhután war of 1864. The prices of food grains appear to have about doubled within the past ten years. In 1860, common rice fetched from 1s. 4d. to 1s. 8d. per cwt.; by 1870, the price had risen to from 2s. 8d. to 4s. 1d.

Neither of the calamities of flood or drought are known in the District, and a general destruction of the crops from such a cause has never occurred. Scarcity elsewhere only affects Jalpáigurí by stimulating the exportation of grain, and thus raising the market prices. In the improbable event of a local scarcity, the inhabitants of the Dwárs could fall back upon the wild produce of the jungle; while those in the settled tract have now been saved from the danger of isolation by the opening of the Northern Bengal State Railway. If the price of rice were to rise in January, after the harvesting of the *áman* crop, to more than 10s. 10d. per cwt., that should be regarded as a sign of approaching distress.

Manufactures, etc.—No special industries have been developed in Jalpáigurí. Among the lower classes, and especially with the aboriginal tribes, the scanty garments are woven by members of the household, who also build their own dwellings and make their own agricultural implements. Of late years trade has been stimulated by the demand for agricultural produce from the south, and by the institution of fairs on the Bhután frontier. The chief exports are jute, tobacco, timber, and a little rice. The imports are piece-goods, salt, and betel-nuts. The tobacco trade is concentrated at the busy mart of Baurá, on the Tístá, whence the produce is despatched down the river to the emporiums of Sirájganj and Goálandá. Baurá can be reached by large boats of from 30 to 40 tons burthen all the year round. Jalpáigurí town, higher up the same river, is only accessible by such vessels during the rains. The Karátoyá is the second river in commercial importance; the chief mart on its banks is Debíganj, whence large quantities of timber are floated down into Dinájpur and Pábná. The timber-cutting is effected by the Mechs, who are very skilful at hollowing trees into canoes. The system of river registration at Sirájganj unfortunately fails to record the entire traffic of Jalpáigurí District, especially in the case of the imports, which are reconsigned from Sirájganj, after having once passed the registration station. The returns for the year 1876-77 show a total export valued at £176,044, against imports valued at only £42,118. The principal exports from the District were 158,000 *maunds* of tobacco, 67,900 *maunds* of jute, 764,611 gunny bags, valued at £16,821, and 12,819 *maunds* of Indian-made twist and yarn. The imports comprise 35,200 *maunds* of salt, valued at £17,600, and £11,190 of European piece-goods. The river traffic is almost entirely

confined to Baurá, which alone exported 136,600 *maunds* of tobacco, and 50,000 *maunds* of jute, and received in exchange 27,400 *maunds* of salt, and £10,800 of piece-goods.

The new Northern Bengal State Railway is intended to have its terminus at Jalpáigurí town, which will thus be brought into direct communication with Calcutta. The District is well supplied with roads, some of which are maintained by the Public Works Department, while the majority are under local management. This advantage it owes to its being on the high way both to Dárjíling and Bhután, and also to its commanding the emigration route between Behar and the Assam valley. There are no artificial canals.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the net revenue of Jalpáigurí District amounted to £32,994, towards which the land tax contributed £23,983, or 72 per cent.; the net expenditure was £16,135, or just one-half the revenue. The land revenue derived from the permanently settled tract amounts to £22,598. The settlement in the Western Dwárs is made for a period of ten years with the *jotdárs* or farmers, except in the case of the Mechs, who pay a capitation tax. For police purposes, the District is divided into 7 *thánás* or police circles, with 4 additional outposts in the Dwárs. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 269 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £6180. In addition, there was a rural police or village watch of 893 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property, consisted of 1162 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 2·50 square miles of the area or to every 360 persons in the population. The estimated total cost was £8501, averaging £2, 18s. 6d. per square mile and 4¾d. per head of population. In that year, the total number of persons in Jalpáigurí District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 484, being 1 person to every 864 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. There is one jail in the District, at Jalpáigurí town, which has recently been condemned on account of its excessive unhealthiness. The labouring convicts have been transferred to neighbouring Districts, and the short-term prisoners moved out into camp. In 1872, the average daily number of prisoners was 61, of whom one was a female; the labouring convicts averaged 47. These figures show 1 prisoner to every 3599 of the population. The total cost amounted to £696, or £11, 8s. 6d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £17, 8s. 10d. The death-rate was as high as 426 per thousand, the number of deaths in the jail hospital being 26, of which 20 were due to an outbreak of cholera.

Education encounters great difficulties in Jalpáigurí, partly owing to the circumstance that the people are not gathered into villages, but live each family in its own sequestered homestead. In 1870, the earliest

year for which statistics are available, the number of schools open was 64, attended by 1372 pupils; the total expenditure was £855, towards which Government contributed £463. The statistics for 1871, and also for 1872, show decline rather than improvement; but by 1875 the schools had increased to 153, and the pupils to 3263, showing 1 school to every 18·9 square miles, and 8 pupils to every thousand of the population.

The District is divided into 2 administrative Subdivisions, with 7 police circles; and the Western Dwárs are again parcelled out into 11 minor divisions or *parganás*. In 1876, there were 4 civil judges and 9 stipendiary magistrates. There is no municipality in the District.

Medical Aspects.—The climate in the vicinity of Jalpáigurí town does not materially differ from that common to Northern Bengal, except that the rainfall is heavier, and during the cold months fogs and mists are of daily occurrence. The prevailing wind is from the east. The average annual rainfall is over 100 inches; the average temperature is about 76° F. The climate of the Western Dwárs is markedly different, especially on the lower slopes of the Bhután Hills. The hot weather here disappears altogether, and the rains last continuously from April to October. The average annual rainfall at Baxá is returned at 280 inches, the temperature at 74°.

The principal diseases are malarious fevers, especially severe in the *tarái;* splenitis, enlargement of the liver, diarrhœa, and dysentery. Goitre is very common in the hilly portion of the Dwárs; and the native troops stationed at Baxá regularly suffer from scurvy, which is said to be induced by the impossibility of obtaining fresh vegetables during the prolonged rainy season. Of recent years, some very fatal outbreaks of cholera have occurred. The vital statistics for selected areas show a death-rate during 1875 of 43·14 per thousand in the rural area, and 30·56 in the urban area. There were in 1872 three charitable dispensaries in the District—all in the Regulation tract—at which 222 in-door and 7110 out-door patients were treated during the year; the total income was £604, towards which Government contributed £402.

Jalpáigurí.—Administrative headquarters of Jalpáigurí District, Bengal; situated on the west or right bank of the Tístá, in lat. 26° 32′ 20″ N., long. 88° 45′ 38″ E. Pop. (1870) estimated at between 4000 and 5000, including the regiment of Native infantry in the cantonments, which lie south of the civil station, separated from it by a small stream called the Kharlá. This town has only risen into importance from the creation of the District in 1869, since which date its population has doubled. It will doubtless still further increase in prosperity on the opening of the new Northern Bengal State Railway.

Jalpesh.—Town in the Western Dwárs, Jalpáigurí District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 31′ N., long 88° 54′ 30″ E. Noted for its annual fair, held on

the occasion of the *Siva-ratri* festival in February, at the temple of Jalpesh, which is about two hundred years old, and built on the site of a still older structure. It contains an image of the god Siva. The articles sold at the fair are chiefly cloth goods, umbrellas, hookahs, brass utensils, blankets, *ghí*, etc. This gathering lasts for ten days, and is attended by about 2000 people.

Jamalábád (or *Narasinha-angadi*).—Town in Uppinangadi *táluk*, South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 13° 2′ N., and long. 75° 22′ E.; houses, 235; pop. (1871), 1112. Founded by Tipú, who camped here when returning from Mangalore in 1784, and, noticing the strength of its situation, built and garrisoned a fortress on an almost inaccessible rock, lying to the west of the town and rising sheer from the plain. The town was destroyed by the Coorg Rájá in 1799. The garrison, however, held out for six weeks against a British force, and only surrendered after a bombardment which cut away their sole means of retreat. The commandant committed suicide. The unusual proportion of Musalmáns in the neighbouring village attests its former military occupation.

Jamalavoi Drúg.—Hill in Medughát *zamíndárí*, Kistna District, Madras. Lat. 16° 57′ 22″ N., long. 80° 38′ 8″ E.; 1856 feet above sea level.

Jamálpur.—Subdivision of Maimansinh District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 43′ to 25° 25′ 45″ N., and long. 89° 38′ to 90° 20′ 45″ E. Area, 1288 square miles; townships, 981; houses, 50,671; pop. (1872), 414,469, of whom 306,780 or 74 per cent. were Muhammadans, and 105,777 or 25·5 per cent. Hindus. Proportion of males, 50·7 per cent.; density of population per square mile, 322; townships per square mile, ·76; inhabitants per township, 422; houses per square mile, 39; inmates per house, 8·2. This Subdivision comprises the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Jamálpur, Sherpur, and Díwánganj. In 1870, it contained a deputy-magistrate and deputy collector's court and 2 *munsif's* courts; regular police, 64 men; village watch, 895 men; cost of Subdivisional administration, £5686, 10s.

Jamálpur.—Headquarters station and municipal town of Jamálpur Subdivision, Maimansinh District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Brahmaputra, in lat. 24° 56′ 15″ N., and long. 89° 58′ 55″ E. The most populous town in the District; number of inhabitants returned in 1872 at 14,312. Gross municipal revenue (1876-77), £351; rate of municipal taxation, 5¾d. per head of population. Jamálpur is connected with Nasírábád (Nusseerabad), 32 miles distant, by a good road; ferry across the Brahmaputra. This town was a military station up to the year 1857.

Jamálpur.—Municipal town in Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 18′ 45″ N., long. 86° 32′ 1″ E. Chiefly noted as containing the largest

iron workshops in India, which belong to the East India Railway Company, and cover an area of 30 acres. These works employ about 3000 labourers, and have attracted the best iron-smiths from many parts of Behar. The Company does its work through a number of native middle-men, who are paid by the piece. Jamálpur possesses a large European settlement. Pop. (1872), 10,453; municipal revenue (1876-1877), £1672; rate of taxation, 2s. 10⅝d. per head of municipal population.

Jambu.—The northern channel leading inland from FALSE POINT anchorage, Cuttack District, Bengal. A winding stream, which renders navigation dangerous, especially during the freshes, when a strong current comes down. A bar stretches across its mouth for about three-quarters of a mile, with 1 foot of water at lowest tide; after this the channel gradually deepens to 10 feet (lowest tide), and higher up still, to 18 feet. Towards Deulpára, some 12 or 15 miles from the mouth, the Jambu shoals and narrows to such an extent that this point becomes the safe limit of navigation for heavily laden country boats. The entire course of this channel is through a desolate country, which during floods forms one large sea or jungle-covered swamp. The Jambu is now the property of the Mahárájá of Bardwán.

Jambukeswaram (a title of Siva).—A famous temple in Srírangam island, Trichinopoli, Madras. Lat. 10° 51′ N., and long. 78° 44′ E.; ¾ of a mile east of the great SRIRANGAM temple, but rivalling the latter in architectural beauty and interest, and probably exceeding it in antiquity. 'It possesses only three courts, but these are much larger than the inner ones of the other temple; and being built on a uniform and well-arranged plan, produce a finer effect. It probably belongs to the 12th century, and must have been completed before the larger pagoda was begun. The first gateway of the outer enclosure is not large, but it leads direct to the centre of a hall containing some 400 pillars. On the right, these open on a tank fed by a perpetual spring, which is one of the wonders of the place. The corresponding space on the left was intended to be occupied by the 600 columns requisite to make up the 1000, but this never was completed. Between the two *gopuras* of the second enclosure is a very beautiful portico of cruciform shape, leading to the door of the sanctuary, which, however, makes no show externally, and access to its interior is not vouchsafed to the profane. The age of this temple is the same as that of its great rival, except that, being all of one design, it probably was begun and completed at once, and, from the simplicity of its parts and details, may be earlier than the great buildings of Tirumalla Nayak. If we assume 1600 A.D., with a margin of ten or fifteen years either way, we shall probably not err much in its date.'—(Fergusson.)

There is an error in the foregoing as to the number of the so-called

'1000 pillars.' 'There are in reality 796 of them, and, if the 142 round the little tank that adjoins the hall are added, the total reaches 938. There are five enclosures in the building. Of these, the first or inner one, in which the *nimána* is, measures 123 feet by 126 feet, with a wall 30 feet high round it. The second is 306 feet by 197, with a wall 35 feet high; there is a *gopura* 65 feet high in this enclosure, and several small *mandaps*. The third enclosure is 745 feet by 197, surrounded by a wall 30 feet high. In this are two *gopuras*, in height 73 and 100 feet respectively; there is a cocoa-nut tope in this portion of the building, containing a small tank and temple, to which the image from the great Vishnu pagoda in the Srírangam island is brought for one day in the year. The hall and tank described by Mr. Fergusson are in the fourth enclosure, which measures 2436 feet by 1493; the wall surrounding it is 35 feet high and 6 feet in thickness. The fifth or outer enclosure contains 4 streets of houses; here is a small *gopura*, about sixty years old, over the western entrance.

'Several inscriptions are found in the various parts of the building; but these are of no great use from a historical point of view, as they are simply accounts of grants of land made to the pagoda from time to time, and, with a single exception, without dates. One of them, however, is stated to have been written about the year 1480 A.D.; and if this be relied on, we must conclude that the temple is nearly 400 years old.

'It appears that the Jambukeswaram pagoda had an endowment of 64 villages in 1750 A.D.; in 1820, it owned only 15; in 1851, a money allowance of £945 was given to the pagoda in lieu of its lands, and this sum is now paid to the trustees every year.'—(Lewis Moore, C.S.)

Jámbulghátá.—Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 33′ N., and long. 79° 30′ E.; 7 miles north-east of Chimúr. The market, held twice a week, is the largest in the District, the chief products sold being cotton cloth and iron. The extensive quarries of soapstone, a mile from the village, have been worked over a hundred years; about 50 cart-loads are annually quarried and fashioned into bowls and platters. Near these quarries are others of a very fine black serpentine, where for three years Raghojí III. employed 250 workmen on fixed wages for eight months in the year. With the stone he constructed a temple at Nágpur. Since his death, the quarries have fallen in. With the funds raised by octroi, a fine wall has been constructed, and a market-place begun. Police outpost.

Jámbusar.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Broach District, Bombay. Lat. 22° 3′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 51′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 14,924; municipal revenue (1874), £767; rate of taxation, 1s. per head of municipal population. In former times, when Tankáriá, 10 miles south-west of Jámbusar, was a port of but little

less consequence than Broach, Jámbusar itself enjoyed considerable trade. Of late years, since the opening of the railway (1861), the traffic by sea at Tankáriá has much fallen off. On the other hand, Jámbusar is only 18 miles distant from the Pálej station, on the railroad between Bombay and Baroda; and as roads have recently been made connecting Jámbusar both with Pálej and Broach (27 miles), a traffic by land has to some extent taken the place of the old sea-borne trade. In preparing cotton for export, 3 ginning factories were employed in 1874. Tanning, the manufacture of leather, and calico printing are carried on to a small extent, and there are also manufactures of ivory, armlets, and toys. Jámbusar has a subordinate judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

James and Mary Sands. (The old explanation of this name, derived from the Bengali words *jal-mári*, 'The Deadly Water,' has been exploded by Dr. Birdwood's discovery in the India Office MSS. of the wreck of a ship called *The James and Mary* on this shoal, circ. 1700 A.D.)—Shifting and dangerous alluvial deposits formed in the channel of the Húgli, by the meeting of the backwater of the Rúpnáráyan with the discharge of the Dámodar, both of which last-named rivers enter the Húglí at sharp angles from the west, nearly opposite Falta. Lat. 22° 13′ to 22° 17′ N., and long. 88° 5′ 45″ to 88° 7′ 30″ E.—*See* HUGLI RIVER.

Jámíra.—One of the tidal estuaries by which the waters of the Ganges merge into the sea, in the Sundarbans, Bengal; between the Matlá and the Húglí rivers. Lat. 21° 36′ N., and long. 88° 31′ E.

Jám-jo-Tando.—Town in the Haidarábád *táluk* of Haidarábád District, Sind. Pop. (1871), 1897—Muhammadans, 937, chiefly of the Nizámáni, Sayyid, and Kháskeli tribes; Hindus, 960, principally Lohános. Founded by the Tálpur dynasty, and now the residence of the Khánáni branch of the Tálpur Mírs. It is on the main road.

Jámkhándi.—Native State within the Political Agency of Kolhápur and Southern Marhattá country, Bombay. Lat. 16° 26′ to 16° 47′ N., and long. 75° 7′ to 75° 37′ E.; area, 492 square miles; pop. (1872), 102,346; estimated gross revenue, £38,680. There are altogether 88 villages, which, exclusive of 7 outlying villages, form three distinct groups—the Jámkhándi Subdivision with 39 villages, the Bidi with 22 villages, and the Kundgal with 20 villages. A soft stone of superior quality is found near the village of Moregundi. Products—cotton, wheat, the ordinary varieties of pulse and millet. Manufactures—coarse cotton cloth and native blankets, for home consumption. There are 10 schools, with 493 pupils. The present (1875) chief, Rámchandra Ráo Gopál, or Apá Sáhib Patwardhán, a Hindu, a Bráhman by caste, forty-two years of age, ranks as a first-class chief of the Southern Marhattá country. For purposes other than military, he maintains a

retinue of 57 horse and 852 foot soldiers; and he pays to the British Government a tribute of £2084. He holds a *sanad* of adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. The chief has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent.

Jámkhándi.—Chief town of the State of the same name, in the Southern Marhattá country, in political connection with the Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 30′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 22′ E.; 70 miles north-east of Belgáum, 68 miles east of Kolhápur, and 162 miles south-east by south of Poona. Pop. (1872), 12,493.

Jámki.—Municipal town in Siálkot District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 23′ N., long. 74° 26′ 45″ E.; pop. (1868), 4214 souls; municipal revenue in 1875-76, £264, or 1s. 2⅝d. per head of population (4355) within municipal limits.

Jammu (*Jamú, Jummoo*).—Province and town in Kashmír State, Punjab. Estimated pop., about 8000. Situated in lat. 32° 43′ 52″ N., and long. 74° 54′ 14″ E., on the Távi, a tributary of the Chenab, among the mountains of the outer Himálayan range. The town and palace stand upon the right bank of the river; the fort overhangs the left or eastern shore at an elevation of 150 feet above the stream. The lofty whitened walls of the palace and citadel present a striking appearance from the surrounding country. An adjacent height commands the fortress, rendering it untenable against modern artillery. Extensive and handsome pleasure grounds. Ruins of great size in the suburbs attest the former prosperity of the city. Once the seat of a Rájput dynasty of independent Rájás, whose dominions extended into the plains, and included the modern District of Siálkot. It was afterwards conquered by the Síkhs, and formed part of Ranjít Sinh's dominions. For its subsequent acquisition by Ghuláb Sinh, see KASHMIR and JAMU.

Jamna.—River of Northern India.—*See* JUMNA.

Jámnagar.—State in Bombay.—*See* NAWANAGAR.

Jámner.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name, in Khandesh District, Bombay. Lat. 20° 48′ N., and long. 75° 45′ E.; 70 miles east by south of Dhulia. Pop. (1872), 5309. Jámner is an agricultural town, and has a dispensary and post office. A detachment of the Poona Horse is stationed here.

Jamni.—River of Bundelkhand, Central India, rising in lat. 24° 36′ N., and long. 78° 50′ E., in the Central Provinces. It flows northwards into Bundelkhand, whence it passes into Gwalior, and, after a course of about 70 miles, eventually joins the BETWA, in lat. 25° 11′ N., and long. 78° 37′ E.

Jámnia (also called *Dabir*).—One of the petty States under the Deputy Bhíl Agency, the Central India Agency, and the Government

of India. The name of the chief is Hamír Sinh, and his title the Bhúmia of Jámnia. He exercises jurisdiction over 47 *páras* or hamlets, and receives from Holkar a *tankha*, or pecuniary allowance, in lieu of rights over land to the amount of £256, granted to his ancestor for protection of the country from Jaum to Nelcha; and a later grant of £250 from Holkar, in addition to the village of Khári, held at a quit-rent of £90, from which an abatement is made of £15 for the protection of the Dúrjanpur Pass. From Sindhia the chief holds 5 villages on payment of £65 annually. From Dhar he receives £6 from the Dharampuri District, on condition of being responsible for robberies; and he also holds the village of Dabír in Dharampur, on a quit-rent of £15. During the minority of the Bhúmia, the estate has been under British management for ten years; it is now free from debt, and had in 1875 a revenue of about £1600.

Jamnotri.—Hot springs in Garhwál State, Punjab, near the source of the Jumna. Lat. 30° 59′ N., long. 78° 35′ E. The springs occur on the sides of a massive mountain block, known as Bánderpúnch, with an elevation of 20,758 feet above sea level. In the centre stands a lake in which the monkey-god Hanumán is said to have extinguished his flaming tail. The water rushes up through a granite rock, and deposits a chalybeate sediment. It has a temperature of 194·7° F. Elevation of the springs, 10,849 feet above the sea.

Jámpuí (or *Jámpui Kang*).—One of the chief ranges in Hill Tipperah, Bengal; runs directly north and south, upon long. 92° 19′ E., between the rivers Deo and Lungái, from lat. 23° 40′ to lat. 24° 10′ N. Highest peaks—Betling Sib (formerly Sorphuel), 3200 feet above the sea; and Jámpuí, 1860 feet. The upper valleys, between the Jámpuí and other northern ranges of Hill Tipperah, are for the most part flat and covered with rank vegetation; those to the south are wild in character, and broken by numerous deep-cut ravines. Small hillocks connect the Jámpuí Hills with those of Sylhet on the north, and with the Lungtene range in Chittagong towards the south.

Jámpur.—*Tahsíl* of Derá Ghází Khán District, Punjab, lying between the Indus and the Suláimán Mountains. Lat. 29° 17′ to 29° 47′ 30″ N., and long. 69° 53′ 30″ to 70° 50′ 30″ E.; area, 691,113 acres, of which 175,239 are cultivated; pop. (1868), 61,534; persons per square mile, 66·81; number of villages, 68.

Jámpur.—Municipal town in Derá Ghází Khán District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Lat. 29° 38′ 34″ N., long. 70° 38′ 16″ E. Pop. (1868), 7796, consisting of 1871 Hindus, 5904 Muhammadans, and 21 'others.' Situated in lat. 29° 38′ 34″ N., and long. 70° 38′ 16″ E., in the plain, 32 miles south of Derá Ghází Khán. Founded, according to local report, by one Jám, a Ját, about the 13th century. Principal industry, wood-turning; export of wooden

tops. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £365, or 1s. 8⅞d. per head of population (4209) within municipal limits.

Jámri.—A small chiefship in Bhandára District, Central Provinces, lying north of the Great Eastern Road, near Sákoli. Lat. 21° 11′ 30″ N., 80° 5′ 30″ E. Consists of 4 small villages, with an area of 9811 acres, of which 707 are rudely cultivated. The chief is a Gond, and obtains a moderate income from the sale of timber.

Jamrúd.—Ruined fort in Pesháwar District, Punjab; situated in lat. 34° N., and long. 71° 24′ E., at the mouth of the Kháibar (Khyber) Pass. It was occupied by Hari Sinh, Ranjít Sinh's commander, in 1836; but in April 1837, Dost Muhammad sent a body of Afgháns to attack it. A battle ensued, in which the Síkhs gained a doubtful victory, with the loss of their general, Hari Sinh. Elevation above sea level, 1670 feet. During the military operations of 1878-79, Jamrúd has become a place of considerable importance, as the frontier outpost on British territory towards Afghánistán.

Jámtára.—Subdivision of Santál Parganás District, Bengal, comprising the *thánά* or police circle of Jámtára. Lat. 23° 48′ 15″ to 24° 10′ 30″ N., and long. 86° 41′ to 87° 20′ 30″ E.; area, 598 square miles; townships, 757; houses, 16,544; pop. (1872), 95,793. Average number of persons per square mile, 160; townships per square mile, 1·27; persons per township, 127; houses per square mile, 28; persons per house, 5·8.

Jamu.—Province and town of Kashmír State, Punjab.—*See* KASHMIR AND JAMMU.

Jamúi.—Subdivision of Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 22′ to 25° 16′ 30″ N., and long. 85° 38′ 30″ to 86° 38′ 30″ E.; area, 1584 square miles; townships, 770; houses, 97,491. Pop. (1872), 524,277, of whom 459,927, or 87·7 per cent., were Hindus; 52,326, or 10 per cent., Muhammadans; 1 Buddhist; 108 Christians; 11,915, or 2·3 per cent., 'others.' Proportion of males, 49·9 per cent.; density of population, 331 per square mile; villages per square mile, ·49; persons per township, 681; houses per square mile, 62; inmates per house, 5·4. This Subdivision comprises the 4 police circles of Shaikhpurá, Sikandra, Jamúi, and Chakái. Number of courts (1870-71), 3; regular police force, 78 men; rural police, 1263 men; cost of Subdivisional administration, £3208, 15s.

Jamúi. — Headquarters of Jamúi Subdivision, Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 55′ 30″ N., long. 86° 15′ 50″ E.; on the left bank of the river Keul, 5 miles south-west of the Jamúi station on the East India Railway, with which it is connected by an unmetalled road. Pop. (1872), 5197. This town lies within the great Gangetic rice plain, but shares in the slope of the country from the Chakái and Hazáribágh plateau northwards; well drained, and healthy. It contains the usual

public buildings, a jail, branch dispensary, Anglo-vernacular school, distillery, etc. Exports—*mahuá* flower and oil, buffalo *ghí*, shell-lac, oil-seeds, grain, and *gúr;* imports—cotton, tobacco, piece-goods, and metal vessels. Trade carried on by rail and by pack-bullocks; no metalled roads in the town. Jamúi is a town of recent growth, and has no historical interest; to the south of it are the remains of an old fort.

Jamuná.—River of Northern India.—*See* JUMNA.

Jamuná (*Jamoona* or *Janái*).—The name given to the lower section of the BRAHMAPUTRA in Northern Bengal, from its entrance into the plains to its confluence with the Ganges. This channel is of comparatively recent formation, but now carries down by far the largest volume of water. When Major Rennell compiled his map of Bengal towards the close of the last century, the main stream of the Brahmaputra flowed in a south-easterly direction across the District of Maimansinh, past the civil station of Nasirábád, to join the Meghna just below Bhairab Bázár. Some thirty years later, at the time of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's survey, this channel had already become of secondary importance. At the present time, though it still bears the name of the Brahmaputra, it has dwindled to a mere watercourse, only navigable during the rainy season. The Jamuná, as had been anticipated by Dr. B. Hamilton, is now the main stream, and in fact the only one marked in common maps. It extends from near Ghorámára in Rangpur District to the river mart of Goálanda in Farídpur, situated at the junction of the Padma or main stream of the Ganges. Its course is almost due north and south, extending approximately from 26° to 24° N. lat. Along the left or east bank stretches the District of Maimansinh; on the right or west bank lie Rangpur, Bográ, and Pabná, all in the Rájsháhí-Kuch-Behar Division. Though a modern creation, the Jamuná thus serves as an important administrative boundary. In that portion of its course which fringes Bográ District, it is locally known as the Dáo-kobá or Hatchet-cut, perhaps to distinguish it from another river of the same name in that District. It runs through a low-lying country, formed out of its own loose alluvial sands. At some points its channel swells to a breadth in the rainy season of 4 or 5 miles, broken by frequent *chars* or sandbanks, which form, are washed away, and re-form year after year, according to the varying incidence of the current. The lowlands on either bank supply the most favourable soil for jute cultivation in Bengal. The one great river mart on the Jamuná is SIRAJGANJ in Pabná District, which collects the agricultural produce of all the surrounding country. In 1876-77, the total number of country boats registered at Sirájganj was 49,644. The Jamuná is navigable throughout its entire length by native craft of the largest burthen at all seasons of the year, and also by the river steamers that ply to Assam.

Jamuná.—A deltaic distributary of the Ganges, or rather the name

given to a part of the waters of the ICHHAMATI during a section of its course. The Jamuná enters the Twenty-four Parganás at Baliání from Nadiyá District; and after a south-easterly route down the Twenty-four Parganás, winds through the forests and jungles of the Sundarbans until it empties itself into the Ráimangal, a short distance from where that estuary merges into the sea, in lat. 21° 47′ N., and long. 89° 13′ E. The Jamuná is a deep river, and navigable throughout the year by trading boats of the largest size. At the point where it enters the District, the stream is about 150 yards wide, but its breadth gradually increases in its progress southwards to from 300 or 400 yards. The canals which run from Calcutta eastward fall into this river at Husáinábád.

Jamuná.—River of Assam, rising in lat. 26° 31′ N., and long. 93° 31′ E., in the north of the Nágá Hills, and flowing first south and then west along the southern foot of the Rengmá Hills, finally falls into the Kapili, a tributary of the Brahmaputra, in Nowgong District, at the village of Jamuná-mukh, in lat. 26° 5′ N., and long. 92° 47′ E. Its tributaries in the hills are the Dikhru, Sargatí, and Pathrádesá, all small streams. In the lower part of its course, it is navigable by boats of 4 tons burthen during the greater part of the year. Coal and limestone of good quality are found in certain portions of its bed.

Jamuná (*Jaboona*).—A river of Northern Bengal, probably representing one of the old channels of the Tístá. It rises in Dinájpur District, not far from the boundary of Rangpur, and flowing due south along the border of Bográ, finally falls into the Atrái, itself a tributary of the Ganges, near the village of Bhawánípur in Rájsháhí District. In the lower part of its course it is navigated all the year round by country boats of considerable burthen, but higher up it only becomes navigable during the rainy season, from June to October. The chief river marts on the banks of the Jamuná are Hábrá in Dinájpur District, and Hillí in Bográ, just beyond the Dinájpur boundary. The latter has been described as the largest rice mart in Northern Bengal. In 1876-77, it exported rice to the value of £72,000, almost entirely consigned to Chandranagar.

Jamwári.—River in Oudh; a small tributary of the Saráyan, rising in Bhurwára village, Kheri District, in lat. 27° 56′ N., and long. 80° 38′ E. After flowing a tortuous course of 41 miles, it joins the Saráyan on its left bank, in Sultánpur District, in lat. 27° 32′ N., and long. 80° 47′ E.

Janaurá.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzabad) District, Oudh; adjoining Ajodhya. Said to have been originally founded by Rájá Janakjí, and having fallen into decay, to have been re-founded by the Oudh Vikramáditya in the 2d century A.D. Pop. (1869), 1852 Hindus and 279 Musalmáns; total, 2131.

Jandiála.—Municipal town in Amritsar District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 6975, consisting of 2320 Hindus, 3693 Muhammadans, 552 Síkhs,

7 Christians, and 403 'others.' Situated in lat. 31° 33′ 40″ N., and long. 75° 4′ 7″ E., on the Grand Trunk Road, 11 miles south-east of Amritsar city. Station on Lahore and Delhi Railway. Founded by a colony of Játs, and named after Jand, the son of their leader. Considerable trade, conducted entirely with Amritsar. Manufacture of brass and copper vessels. Police station, *sarái*, Government and mission school, post office. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £457, or 1s. 4d. per head of population (6819) within municipal limits.

Jandiála.—Town in Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 9′ 30″ N., long. 75° 39′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 6439, consisting of 2539 Hindus, 932 Muhammadans, and 2968 Síkhs. Agricultural centre, of purely local importance.

Jangipur.—Subdivision of Murshidábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 19′ to 24° 52′ N., and long. 87° 51′ 30″ to 88° 24′ 15″ E.; area, 576 square miles; townships, 668; houses, 58,818; pop. (1872), 273,487. Persons per square mile, 475; townships per square mile, 1·16; persons per village, 409; houses per square mile, 102; persons per house, 4·6. This Subdivision comprises the 5 police circles (*thánás*) of Raghunáthganj, Mírzápur, Palsá, Sutí, and Shamsherganj.

Jangipur (or *Jahángírpur*).—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Murshidábád District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Bhágirathi, in lat. 24° 28′ N., and long. 88° 6′ 45″ E. Pop. (1872), 11,361; gross municipal revenue (1876-77), £957; rate of taxation, 1s. 8d. per head. The town is said to have been founded by the Emperor Jahángír. During the early years of British rule, it was an important centre of the silk trade, and the site of one of the Company's Commercial Residencies. Jangipur is now best known as the toll station for registering the traffic on the Bhágirathi. Total traffic in 1872, about 377,508 *maunds*, or 13,821 tons; in 1874, 140,318 *maunds*, or 5135 tons. The number of boats registered here annually is about 10,000; the amount of toll, £8000, or about one-third of the total gross revenue derived from the Nadiyá rivers.

Janjirá (*Habsan*). — Native State within the Political Agency of Kolába (Colaba), in the Province of the Konkán, Bombay. Lat. 18° to 18° 31′ N., and long. 72° 53′ to 73° 17′ E. It is bounded north by the Rewádanda creek in the British District of Kolába; east by the Rohá and Mahad Subdivisions of the same District; south by the Bánkot creek in the District of Ratnágiri; and west by the Arabian Sea. Estimated area, 151 square miles; pop. (1872), 71,966, principally agriculturists and fishermen; estimated gross revenue, £32,800. The surface of the country is covered with spurs and hill ranges, averaging about 1000 feet in height, and generally running parallel to the course of the arms of the sea that pass eastwards into the heart of the land. The sides of the hills are thickly wooded, except

where cleared for cultivation. The villages lie chiefly in the valleys between the hills, and here excellent crops of rice are raised. Except these plots of rich alluvial land and some sandy tracts near the coast, the usual red stony soil of the Konkán prevails. For irrigation purposes, water sufficiently fresh is found everywhere by digging a few yards into the easily worked earth. It is drawn from wells by means of the Persian wheel, and from streams by a balance-lift called *upti.* In the strip of light sand bordering the sea-coast, cocoa-nut trees grow in great perfection. The climate is the same as that of most other parts of the Konkán—hot, relaxing, and moist, but not unhealthy. Products—firewood, timber, cocoa-nuts, rice, the coarser varieties of grain, and hemp; manufactures—salt and *sáris* or robes for women. The State has for some years been a chief source of supply of firewood to Bombay; but its forests have been consequently over-cut, and the necessity of conserving them has recently engaged the attention of the Government of Bombay. There are no made roads, traffic being carried on almost entirely by water. In March 1874, a regular tri-weekly steam communication was established between Bombay and Dásgáon, on the Sávitri river, touching at Janjirá. There are 8 regular and 34 irregular schools in the State, with 517 pupils in the former and 374 in the latter class. The Chief is a Sunni Muhammadan, by race a Sidi or Abyssinian, with the title of Nawáb. The last Chief, Ibráhim Khán Yákat Khán, died in 1879. He has no *sanad* authorizing adoption. As regards succession, the eldest son does not, as of right, succeed to the throne; but that one among the sons who is decided by the supreme authority in the State to be fittest to rule. Till 1868, the State enjoyed singular independence, there being no Political Agent, and no interference whatever in its internal affairs. About that year, the mal-administration of the Chief, especially in matters of police and criminal justice, became flagrant; those branches of administration were in consequence taken out of his hands, and vested in a Political Agent. The Treaty, which regulates the dealings of the British Government with the Nawáb, is that of 1870. The name Janjirá is corrupted from the Arabic *jazirah*, 'an island.' The origin of the ruling family is thus related:—About the year 1489 A.D., an Abyssinian in the service of one of the Nizám Sháhi kings of Ahmednagar, disguised as a merchant, obtained permission from the chiefs of the island to land 300 boxes. Each of these boxes contained a soldier, and by this means the Abyssinians possessed themselves of Janjirá island and the fort of Dandá Rájápur. The island afterwards formed part of the dominions of the King of Bijápur. In the time of Sivají, the government of the Southern Konkán was held by the Admiral of the Bijápur fleet, who was always an Abyssinian. In consequence of harsh treatment at the hands of his master, the Sidi Admiral offered his services, in 1660

A.D., to the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb. The most noticeable point in the history of Janjirá, is its successful resistance, alone of all the States of Western India, to the repeated and determined attacks of the Marhattás, who made its capture a point of honour. After being repeatedly attacked by Sivají, its conquest was again attempted in 1682 by his son Sambají, who besieged the island, which he attempted to connect with the mainland by means of a mole. The project failed, and other attempted modes of attack were defeated with heavy loss.

Janjirá.—Chief town of Janjirá State, in the Konkán, Bombay. Lat. 18° 18′ N., long. 73° E.; 44 miles south of Bombay. Pop. (1872), 1740. The town is situated on an island of the same name.

Jánsath.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the Ganges and the Hindan, traversed by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, and watered by the Ganges Canal. Area, 453 square miles, of which 302 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 161,927; land revenue, £23,527; total Government revenue, £27,464; rental paid by cultivators, £66,094; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 7½d.

Jánsath.—Town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Lat. 29° 19′ 15″ N., long. 77° 53′ 20″ E.; pop. (1872), 6117, consisting of 3478 Hindus and 2639 Muhammadans. Situated on a low part of the plain, 14 miles south-east of Muzaffarnagar. Famous as the home of the Jánsath Sayyids, who held all the chief offices of the Delhi Empire in the early part of the 18th century. Jánsath was sacked and destroyed by a Rohillá force, under orders from the Wazír Kamar-ud-dín, in 1737, and most of the Sayyids were slain or exiled; but some of their descendants still inhabit the town. Police station, post office, school.

Jáora.—One of the Native States in the Western Málwá Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. The lands of this chiefship were originally assigned by Jaswant Ráo Holkar to Amír Khán for support of troops to aid Holkar's schemes of aggrandizement in Northern India. Amír Khán's brother-in-law, Gaffúr Khán, being in occupation when the battle of Mahidpur decided the fate of Málwá in 1818, the possession was secured to him and his heirs by the British Government. The present Nawáb of Jáora is Muhammad Ismáil Khán, by race a Pathán. Though nominally a feudatory of Holkar, and liable to the payment of a succession *nazarána* of 2 *lákhs* (say £20,000), the Nawáb is directly under the protection and political control of the British Government. He holds a *sanad* guaranteeing the succession according to Muhammadan law in the event of failure of natural heirs. The territory of Jáora lies between

lat. 23° 32′ and 23° 55′ N., and between long. 74° 52′ and 75° 38′ E.; its area, in 1875, was estimated at about 872 square miles; the population in the same year at 85,500; revenue, £79,930. Jáora contains the best poppy-growing lands in Málwá. The Nawáb keeps up a military force of 150 horse and 600 foot. His services during the Mutiny were rewarded by an increase to his salute, which is fixed at 13 guns, and by a reduction in his annual contribution to the Contingent, now fixed at £16,181.

Jarwál.—Town in Bahráich District, Oudh; on the road from Bahramghát to Bahráich, 5½ miles from the former and 29 from the latter town. Lat. 27° 10′ 9″ N., long. 81° 35′ 33″ E. A Muhammadan town, captured from the Bhars in 1340 A.D., by a Sayyid chief, whose descendants still reside in the village. Their influence has of late much decreased, and a considerable portion of their ancestral estates has passed into the possession of Rájput neighbours. Pop. (1869), 1928 Muhammadans, 1400 Hindus—total, 3328, residing in 900 houses. Bi-weekly market for the sale of grain, cloth, and brass vessels. Manufactures—fireworks, dyes, saltpetre, scents, and felts, the latter being a speciality of Bahráich District. Two Hindu temples, 4 mosques, resting-house (*sarái*), Government school.

Jasdán.—Native State within the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 32,134; number of villages, 61; estimated gross revenue, £14,500. Products, cotton and grain. Jasdán ranks as a third-class State among the many petty States of Káthiáwár. Its ruler entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. The present (1875) chief, Kháchar Alá Chelá, a Hindu of the Káthi tribe, is forty-three years of age. He pays to the British Government, the Gáekwár of Baroda, and the Nawáb of Junágarh, a total tribute of £1066, and maintains a military force of 341 men. He holds no *sanad* of adoption, but the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. This is the only Káthi family in which primogeniture has been established, the indigenous Káthi custom being to divide property equally among all the sons. Jasdán town is situated in lat. 22° 5′ N., long. 71° 20′ E.

Jashpur.—Tributary State of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal. Lat. 22° 17′ 5″ to 23° 15′ 30″ N., long. 83° 32′ 50″ to 84° 26′ 15″ E.; area, 1947 square miles; pop. (1872), 66,926. Bounded on the north and west by the tributary State of Sargújá; on the south by Gángpur and Udáipur; and on the east by Lohárdagá District.

Physical Aspects.—The State of Jashpur consists in almost equal proportions of highland and lowland areas. On its eastern side, the tableland of the Upargát (2200 feet above the sea) blends with and forms an integral part of the plateau of Chutiá Nágpur; towards the

west, it springs abruptly from the Hetghát, with a wall buttressed at places by projecting masses of rock. The lowlands of Hetghát and of Jashpur proper lie to the south in successive steppes, broken by low hills, gneiss rocks, and isolated bluffs. A slight depression separates the Upparghát from the still loftier plateau of the Khuriá (3000 to 3700 feet), which occupies the north-west corner of the State, forming the watershed between the Ib and the Kanhar, a tributary of the Són. The principal peaks in Jashpur are Ráníjulá (3527 feet), Kohiar (3393 feet), Bharamurio (3390 feet). The chief river is the Ib, which flows through the State from north to south; but numerous rapids render it unnavigable. The small rivers to the north are feeders of the Kanhar. Iron and gold are found in Jashpur; *sál*, *sisú*, ebony, and other valuable timber abound along the course of the Ib. Jungle products—lac, *tasar* silk, and bees-wax.

History.—Jashpur, with the rest of the Sargújá group of States, was ceded to the British Government by the provisional engagement concluded with Madhojí Bhonslá (Apá Sáhib) in 1818. Although noticed in the second article of this agreement as a separate estate, Jashpur was at first treated in some measure as a fief of Sargújá, through which State it still pays tribute; in every other respect it is dealt with as a distinct territory. The chief of Jashpur renders no feudal service to Sargújá; his annual income is about £2000; the tribute to Government, £77, 10s.

Population.—The total population of Jashpur State in 1872 numbered 66,926 persons, being 34,648 males and 32,278 females, the proportion of males being 51·8 per cent.; density of population, 34 per square mile. Classified according to race, there were—Dravidian aborigines (of whom Uráons are the most numerous), 40,935, or 61·2 per cent. of total population; Kolarian aborigines, 14,070, or 21 per cent.; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 6374, or 9·5 per cent.; Hindus, 5124, or 7·7 per cent.; Muhammadans, 423, or ·6 per cent. For a full description of the aboriginal tribes, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, xvii. pp. 203-207. The residence of the Rájá is at Jagdispur or Jashpurnagar.

Crops.—Cereals, oil-seeds, fibres, and cotton.

Jashpur.—Hill range in Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal. The principal peaks are—Ráníjulá, 3527 feet in height, lat. 22° 59′ 45″ N., long. 83° 38′ 0″ E.; Kohiar, 3393 feet; Bharamurio, 3390 feet; Chipli, 3300 feet; Laiongbir, 3293; Bhusrunga, 3285 feet; Talora, 3258 feet; Dulum, 3248 feet; Garh, 3226 feet; Dhasma, 3222 feet, etc.

Jaso.—Petty State in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India, situated between lat. 24° 20′ and 24° 34′ N., and between long. 80° 28′ 0″ and 80° 40′ 30″ E. The chief, Diwán Bhopál Sinh, is a Hindu Bundela. The area of the State is 74 square

miles; the population in 1875 was estimated at about 4000; the revenue in the same year at about £1400. The chief keeps up a military force of 2 guns and about 50 horsemen. He holds a *sanad*, giving the right of adoption. The town of Jaso is in lat. 24° 27′ N., and long. 80° 35′ E.

Jasol.—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána; situated near the left bank of the Luní river, in lat. 25° 8′ N., and long. 72° 21′ E., 60 miles south-west of Jodhpur town. Built at the northern base of a conical hill. Now an insignificant village with a sparse population.

Jaspur.—Town in the Tarái District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 16′ 45″ N., long. 78° 52′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 6746.

Jaspura.—Village in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; 17 miles north of Bánda town. Pop. (1872), 2319. The neighbouring fort of Abhaipur was founded by a robber chieftain, Humáyun, who gathered a body of followers during the 18th century, and took the title of Rájá. He diverted the waters of the Ken into an artificial channel, which supplies a valuable means of irrigation at the present day.

Jasrota. — Extinct principality and town in Kashmír State, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 29′ N., and long. 75° 27′ E., among the mountains of the southern Himálayan chain. The last Rájá was dispossessed by Ranjít Sinh. Thornton describes the Rájá's residence as a handsome palace with four towers, small *bázár*, inconsiderable trade.

Jaswán Dun.—Valley in Hoshiárpur District, Punjab, intervening between the Siwálik Hills and the outer Himálayan range. It corresponds to the Dehra Dún in the Gangetic Doáb, and the Khiárda Dún in Náhan State. The Sohán torrent traverses its whole length, and during the floods occupies almost the entire valley from side to side. Spurs from the neighbouring hills project into the central dale from either range, but the greater part is level and open, with a breadth of from 4 to 14 miles. Elevation of the town of Una, situated about the middle of the Dún, 1404 feet above sea level.

Jaswantnagar.—Commercial town in Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 52′ 50″ N., long. 78° 56′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 5310, consisting of 3735 Hindus and 1575 Muhammadans. Situated on the East Indian Railway, 10 miles north-west of Etáwah. Named after Jaswant Rái, a Máinpuri Káyasth, who settled in the town in 1715. Handsome houses of the wealthier merchants. Fine tank, with temple and bathing *gháts* built by a rich *mahájan*. Place of worship of the Saraugis, who form a considerable element in the population. Small Hindu temple, west of town, was occupied on May 19, 1857, by mutineers of the 3rd Native Cavalry; during a bold attempt to dislodge them, the Joint Magistrate was wounded in the face. Considerable

trade in yarn, cattle, and country produce, as well as English piece-goods. Export of *ghí*, manufacture of native cloth. Railway station, first-class police station, good school, charitable dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £465; from taxes, £383, or 1s. 5¼d. per head of population (5340) within municipal limits. The municipality has since been abolished.

Jath.—Native State within the Political Agency of Satára, in the Deccan, Bombay. Lat. 16° 50′ to 17° 18′ N., and long. 75° 1′ to 75° 31′ E.; area, 998 square miles; pop. (1872), 70,665; number of villages, 114; estimated gross revenue, exclusive of transit dues, £10,000. The land is generally poor, the country westward being hilly and rocky, and the soil covered with stone and gravel. Towards the east, black soil is found, and the crops are much heavier. Cultivation is neglected, and there has been little attempt at irrigation. Products —cotton, wheat, gram, and the common varieties of millet. There are 12 schools, with 510 pupils. The present (1875) chief is a Hindu of the Kshattriya caste. His name is Amri Ráo Sáhib Dafta Desmukh, and his title *Jágírdár* of Jath. He is forty years of age, and ranks as a first-class Sardár in the Deccan. He holds a *sanad* of adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. Owing to mismanagement on the part of the chief, the State has been under attachment since April 1874, and the administration is conducted by a British officer.

Jath.—Chief town of Jath State in the Deccan, in political connection with the Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 3′ N., long. 75° 16′ E.; 88 miles south-east of Satára, 95 miles north-east of Belgáum, and 132 miles south-east by south of Poona.

Játi.—A *táluk* of the Sháhbandar Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Lat. 23° 33′ 30″ to 24° 36′ N., and long. 68° 0′ 30″ to 68° 48′ 15″ E.; area, 2053 square miles, with 4 *tapás* and 80 villages; pop. (1872), 22,725; revenue (1873-74), £6920, of which £6355 was derived from imperial and £565 from local sources.

Jatingá.—River in the north of Cáchár District, Assam; which rises amid the Baráil Hills, and flows south past the village of Barkholá into the Barák, a few miles below Silchár.

Jatoi.—Municipal town in Muzaffargarh District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 30′ 45″ N., long. 70° 53′ E.; distant from Alípur 11 miles north-west. Pop. (1868), 4814. Local tradition attributes its foundation to Mír Bajár Khán, in the days of the Emperor Bábar. The Indus washed away the original town at the close of the last century, but it was shortly afterwards rebuilt on the present site. Jatoi was for some time subordinate to Baháwalpur, but was annexed by Diwán Sawan Mall. In the war against Mulráj, the Jatoi people threw off the Síkh rule, and rendered good service in the Múltán (Mooltan) campaign. Police

station, school-house, post office. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £93, or 11d. per head of population (1914) within municipal limits.

Jatoi.—Village in the Naushahro Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 892. Export trade in grain, annual value, £600. Founded in 1780.

Jatrápur.—Trading village in Rangpur District, Bengal; near the river Dharla. Lat. 25° 49′ N., long. 89° 47′ 15″ E. Exports, jute and mustard-seed.

Jattá.—Important Government salt-mine in Kohát District, Punjab, in the chain of hills known as the Kohát Salt Range. Lies on the north side of the Teri Toi river, 9 miles west of Malgin mine. The salt occurs as solid rock, and is quarried by blasting over an area of one mile by one mile and a half. Only bullocks and donkeys are here laden, camels being prohibited in order to prevent overcrowding at this mine, the nearest of the five situated in the same range. The protective establishment comprises 23 men. The headquarters of the salt-mines are at Jattá. Quantity extracted in 1870-71 (at Jattá mine), 123,268 *maunds;* amount of duty, £3081. Annual average gross income for the ten years ending 1872, £2829.

Jáulna.—Town in Haidarábád (Hyderabad), Central India.—*See* JALNA.

Jaum.—Village and fort in Indore State, Central India. Lat. 22° 22′ N., long. 75° 47′ E.; 14 miles south of Mhow (Mau), and 100 north-west of Asírgarh. Situated on the summit of a pass in the Vindhyá range, impracticable for wheeled carriages; 2328 feet above sea level.

Jaunpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 23′ 45″ and 26° 12′ N. lat., and between 82° 10′ and 83° 7′ 45″ E. long., with an area of 1556 square miles, and a population in 1872 of 1,025,961 persons. Jaunpur is the north-eastern District of the Allahábád Division. It is bounded on the north and north-west by the Oudh Districts of Faizábád (Fyzabad), Partábgarh, and Sultánpur; on the east and north-east by Gházípur and Azamgarh; on the south by Benares and Mírzápur; and on the west by Allahábád. The administrative headquarters are at the town of JAUNPUR. A small portion of the District is isolated from the remainder by an intrusive belt of Oudh territory.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Jaunpur forms part of the wide Gangetic plain, and its surface is composed of a thick alluvial deposit, brought down by the great rivers which flow from the Himálayan range. It differs, however, from the typical plain regions in the slight irregularity of its contour, which is worn down into undulating slopes by the action of minor streams. This apparent diversity of surface is increased by the occurrence of lofty mounds, often covered with groves, which mark the sites of ruined or deserted

towns, the relics of a forgotten race. At places may be seen a patch of *usár*, rendered barren by the white saline efflorescence known as *reh;* but with this exception the whole District is closely tilled, and no waste lands break the continuous prospect of cultivated fields. The northern and central portions are richly wooded with the thick foliage of the mango, or with isolated clumps of *mahúa* and tamarind trees. The District is divided into two unequal parts by the sinuous channel of the Gumti, a tributary of the Ganges, which flows past the city of Jaunpur, and cuts off one-third of the area to the north-east. Its total course within the District is about 90 miles, and it is nowhere fordable. At Jaunpur, it is traversed by the famous Muhammadan bridge built by Mumzim Khán in 1569-73, consisting of 16 arches, with a total span of 712 feet. Two miles lower down, it is again crossed by the modern railway bridge on the Oudh and Rohilkhand line, which has the same number of arches, but double the span of the older work. The channel of the Gumti is deep and well defined, while the hardness of the nodular limestone through which it has slowly eaten its way effectually prevents those constant shiftings, which give rise to endless riparian disputes in the wider valleys of the great arterial streams. The other rivers of the District are the Sái, the Barna, the Pilli, and the Basohi. Lakes are numerous in the north and south, though rare in the central *parganás;* the largest has a length of 8 miles. Owing to the density of the population and the absence of forests or waste lands, wild animals are scarce, and the waterfowl of the marshy lakes form the only attraction for the sportsman. But cobras and other snakes are common, while packs of wolves frequent the scanty ravines which border the Gumti and the Sái.

History.—In the earliest times, Jaunpur was held by the Bhars, a tribe of non-Aryan aborigines, who occupied the whole northern slope of the central Ganges plain. Few traces of their long settlement in this District can now be recovered. Along the banks of the Barna, frequent mounds conceal the sites of large cities destroyed by fire; but these were probably overthrown in the 9th century of our era, when the great Bráhmanist revival finally triumphed over Buddhism, and the faith of Sakya Muni was trampled out with flame and sword throughout all Upper India. Vast temples also stood at one time by the side of the Gumti, and some portions of their architecture have survived the devastation of the earliest Musalmán invaders; yet nothing is known with certainty of their age or founders. The fort of Fíroz, built about the year 1360, was almost entirely constructed from ruined temples of Buddhist or Hindu origin, and carved stones taken from the infidel buildings abound in the walls. Doubtless, in prehistoric times Jaunpur formed a portion of the Ajodhya principality; and when it first makes an appearance in authentic history, it was subject to the rulers of

Benares. With the rest of their dominions it fell under the yoke of the Musalmán maurauders after the victory gained by Shahab-ud-dín over the Hindu champion Jái Chánd, in 1194 A.D. From this time the District appears to have been ruled by a prince of the Kanauj dynasty, as a tributary of the Muhammadan suzerain. In 1360, Firoz Tughlak, on his return from an expedition to Bengal, encamped at Jaunpur, and, being struck with the advantages of its site, determined to build a city on the spot. He remained there for six months, and demolished one Hindu temple; but the stout resistance of the populace compelled him to refrain from his attempt to level another, the votive offering of Jái Chánd. At a later date, however, it was destroyed by Ibráhim, Sultán of Jaunpur, who employed the stones to construct the mosque known as the Atala Masjíd. Only a rich screen, flanked by two ragged pinnacles, now remains of Ibráhim's building. In 1388, Malik Sarwar Khwája, a eunuch who had become Wazír at Delhi, was sent by Muhammad Tughlak to govern the eastern Province, which extended from Kanauj to Behar. The ambitious eunuch fixed his residence at Jaunpur, and in 1394, taking advantage of Timur's invasion, he made himself independent of the Delhi court, and assumed the title of Sultán-us-Shark, or Eastern Emperor. For nearly a century, the Sharki dynasty ruled at Jaunpur, and proved formidable rivals to the sovereigns of Delhi. They possessed the greater part of Hindustán, and were engaged in one long struggle with their former masters for the supremacy of the whole. The founder of the dynasty, who died in 1400, left his dominions to his adopted son Mubárak Khán. The new Sultán reigned only for a single year, and died in 1401, while resisting an attack of the Delhi forces at Kanauj. He was succeeded by his younger brother, Ibráhim, the builder of the Atala Masjíd. Ibráhim's life was spent in a long contest for the recovery of Kanauj, which he was obliged to cede in the earlier years of his reign, and for the conquest of Kálpi, which he twice unsuccessfully attacked. He died in 1440. His son, Mahmúd, was more aggressive. In 1442, he took Kálpi, and ten years later marched upon Delhi, to which he laid siege. Bahlol Lodi, the real ruler of the Empire under the *fainéant* Emperor Alá-ud-dín, returned from the Punjab (Panjáb), raised the siege, and utterly defeated Mahmúd. The last of the dynasty was Sultán Hassan, who passed his life in a fierce and chequered struggle for supremacy with Bahlol, then actual Emperor at Delhi. At length, in 1478, Bahlol succeeded in defeating his rival in a series of decisive engagements. He took the city of Jaunpur, but permitted the conquered Hassan to reside there, and to complete the building of his great mosque, the Jamá Masjíd, which forms the chief ornament of the town at the present day. Many other architectural works in the District still bear witness to its former greatness under its independent Musalmán rulers. In spite of

such unwonted clemency, Hassan more than once rebelled, and died an insurgent in 1495. Under the Lodi dynasty the history of Jaunpur contains nothing more than the stereotyped narrative of provincial intrigue, constant revolt, and bloody repression. When Ibráhim, the last of that line, was defeated and killed at Pánipat by Bábar in 1526, Bahádur Khán, the governor of Jaunpur, asserted his independence; and for a short time a local kingdom was once more established in the District. But after the fall of Agra and Delhi, Bábar sent his son Humáyun eastward for the recovery of Jaunpur and Behar. Thenceforward the District formed a portion of the Mughal empire, except during the brief interposition of Sher Sháh and his family. In 1575, Akbar removed the viceregal court for the eastern Provinces to his newly founded city and fort of Allahábád; and Jaunpur was governed from that time by a Nizám. Nothing worthy of note occurred in connection with this District until 1722, when it was transferred, with Benares, Gházípur, and Chanár, from the viceroyalty of Allahábád and the direct sway of the Delhi Empire to the hands of the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh. The latter appointed Balwant Sinh to the government of these Districts, with the title of Rájá of Benares. In 1750, when the Rohillá leader, Sayyid Ahmad Bangash, defeated the Wazír Saádat Khán, he nominated his own kinsman, Zama Khán, to be governor of the Benares Province. Zama Khán was finally expelled from Jaunpur by Rájá Chait Sinh of Benares. The Nawáb Wazír, however, retained possession of the fort, which was not handed over to Chait Sinh till the English gave it him in 1777. Our first connection with the District arose in 1765, when it passed for a short time into our hands after the battle of Baxar. In 1775, it was made over to us permanently by the treaty of Lucknow. From that time nothing occurred which calls for notice up till the date of the Mutiny. On 5th June 1857, news of the Benares revolt reached Jaunpur. The Sepoy of the treasury guard at once mutinied, and shot their own officers, as well as the Joint Magistrate. They then marched off to Lucknow without molesting the other Europeans, who made good their escape to Benares. The District continued in a state of complete anarchy till the arrival of the Gurkhá force from Azamgarh on 8th September. The civil officials then returned to Jaunpur, and the police stations were re-established; but the north and west of the District remained in rebellion. In November, owing to the active levies made by Mehndi Hassan, who styled himself Názim of Jaunpur, most of the surrounding country was lost again. But in February 1858, the rebels of the north and west were defeated and dispersed; and in May, the last smouldering embers of disaffection were stifled by the repulse of the insurgent leader Jurhi Sinh from Machhlishahr, at the hands of the people themselves. After that time, no more serious disturbance occurred than the gang robberies of a few desperate dacoit leaders.

Population.—Jaunpur is one of the Districts where the spread of cultivation has almost reached its limit, and where migration to less thickly populated regions has lately thinned the number of inhabitants. The Census of 1853 returned the population at 1,143,749 persons; in 1865, the number had decreased to 1,015,427; while in 1872 there was a slight rise again to the total of 1,025,961 persons. These returns show a falling-off of 128,322, or 12·6 per cent., in the first period, from 1853 to 1865; and an increase of 10,534, or 1·03 per cent., in the second period, from 1865 to 1872. The net decrease for the 19 years amounts to 117,788, or 11·4 per cent. This loss of population may be partly accounted for by deaths and emigration during the Mutiny; but it is doubtless still more to be explained by the constant drain of the working classes to other regions where labour is in demand and the soil is not yet completely brought under tillage. Men from this District may be found on railway and other works over all Northern India. The Census of 1872 was taken upon an area of 1556 square miles. It disclosed a total population of 1,025,961 persons, distributed among 3221 villages, and 200,438 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 659; villages per square mile, 2; houses per square mile, 128; persons per village, 319; persons per house, 5·1. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 545,752; females, 480,209; proportion of males, 53·2 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 188,359; females, 149,863; total, 338,222, or 32·97 per cent. In religion, Jaunpur is still essentially a Hindu District, in spite of its long subjection to Muhammadan rulers, and the continued presence in its midst of a local Musalmán court. The Census shows 929,525 Hindus, being at the rate of 90·6 per cent., as against 96,319 Muhammadans, who stand in the proportion of only 9·4 per cent. The Musalmáns have varied in numbers during the last nineteen years much more conspicuously in either direction than their Hindu neighbours. As regards the ethnical distinctions and caste differences of the people, Bráhmans in 1872 numbered 131,756; Rájputs, 109,995; Banias, 18,732; Ahírs, 151,037; Chamárs, 130,388; Káyasths, 13,335; and Kurmís, 33,366. Amongst the Musalmáns, Shaikhs were returned at 19,919; Sayyids, 3437; Mughals, 391; and Patháns, 12,522. Europeans numbered 86; Eurasians, 8; and native Christians, 23. The agricultural population amounted to 700,933, or 68·3 per cent. of the District total. There are only two towns the number of whose inhabitants exceeds 5000—namely, JAUNPUR with 23,327, and MACHHLISHAHR with 8715. The aggregate urban population accordingly amounts to 32,042 persons, or less than 3 per cent. Indeed, as nearly seven-eighths of the villages contain less than 500 inhabitants, it is clear that the great mass of the people are scattered about in small hamlets, as is usual in the eastern

Districts of the North-West; whereas, in the western parts of the Province, a considerable proportion of the population is collected together in large towns.

Agriculture.—The ordinary soil of Jaunpur is a mixture of vegetable mould, clay, and sand; but in old river beds and the basins of temporary lakes, a rich black alluvial deposit, answering to the *már* of Bundelkhand, may occasionally be found. The whole District is one wide expanse of cultivation, with scarcely an available acre untilled. The harvests are those common to the rest of Upper India. The *kharíf* or autumn crops include cotton, rice, *bájra*, *joár*, and *moth*. They are sown in June, immediately after the first rain of the season, and reaped from September to November. The *rabí* or spring crops are sown in the autumn months, and reaped from March to April. They consist of wheat, barley, oats, peas, and other pulses. The mode of cultivation is very simple. Seeds are almost always sown broadcast in land ploughed by an iron spike, set between two pieces of wood, and serving both for share and coulter. A wooden board drawn by bullocks does duty for harrow and roller. The quantity of land taken up by the autumn crops varies with the earliness of the rains and other contingencies; as a rule, about one-third of the cultivable area is sown for the *kharíf*. Near the towns, almost all land is tilled for both harvests; but in the low-lying rice lands, and in indigo or sugar-cane plantations, only one crop a year is grown. The best soils are selected for wheat, and barley ranks next in popular estimation. Sugar yields the greatest profit, but it requires much care and plentiful manuring; while the land in which it is grown must always be left fallow for six months or a year. The condition of the peasantry is one of only moderate comfort. The Kúrmis and Káchis, however, who cultivate poppy, tobacco, and vegetables, make larger profits than others, and are steadier and more industrious. The tenures in the District belong to the three main classes of *zamíndárí*, *pattidárí*, and *bhayáchárá*. The rates of wages are low, and labour is easily obtained. In 1877, coolies were paid from 2d. to 3d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d.; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. Field hands are usually paid in kind, an adult receiving 2½ lbs. of the coarser grains, with a slight increase at harvest or festivals, and a suit of clothes yearly. Parched gram and treacle for the midday meal are supplied by the employer. The average price of food-grains in 1876 was as follows:—Wheat, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.; rice, 8 *sers* per rupee, or 14s. per cwt.; *joár*, 37 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. per cwt.; *bájra*, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The Gumti is liable to sudden freshets during the rainy season, owing to the high banks which it has piled up at its entrance into the Ganges, and which act as dams to prevent the

prompt outflow of its flooded waters. These inundations extend to its tributary the Sái. Much damage was thus effected in 1774; but the greatest recorded flood took place in September 1871, when the river rose more than 23 feet in fourteen days, and swept away 4000 houses in the city, besides 9000 others in villages along its banks. On the other hand, Jaunpur has been comparatively free from drought. In 1770, the District suffered like all its neighbours; but in 1783, and in 1803, the scarcity did not rise to the point of famine. The disastrous season of 1837-38, of course, affected Jaunpur to some extent, yet its worst ravages were confined to the western Districts. The distress of 1860-61 did not reach so far east as Jaunpur; while the Bengal famine of 1874 scarcely extended to this District, though severely felt in the trans-Gogra region. In short, Jaunpur, like its neighbour Azamgarh, has enjoyed a singular immunity from this terrible scourge, when compared with any other part of the plain country. The rainfall seldom or never fails entirely, and it is generally so spread over the year, as to secure at least one harvest from total loss.

Communications, Trade, etc.—The District is almost entirely devoted to agriculture, and its trade is confined to raw materials and food-stuffs. The principal fairs are held at Mariáhu in September, and at Karchuli in March; they are attended by from 20,000 to 25,000 pilgrims and traders. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway passes through the District, with a length of 45 miles, and 6 stations. There are 145 miles of metalled and 364 miles of unmetalled roads in Jaunpur. During the rains, the Gumti is navigable for the largest native craft, which are employed in bringing down grain from Oudh. The Sái is also navigable for boats of moderate burden.

Administration.—The District of Jaunpur formed part of the Benares Province under the Oudh Government; and after the introduction of British rule it was at first included in that Division. In 1865, it was transferred to the Division of Allahábád. The local staff usually consists of a Magistrate Collector and a Joint or Assistant Magistrate, with the usual native subordinates. The whole amount of revenue (imperial, municipal, or local) raised in the District in 1876, was £162,472. Of this sum, £125,072, or nearly five-sixths, was contributed by the land tax. In 1875, the total strength of the regular police force was 590 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £7036. These figures give 1 policeman to every 2·63 square miles of area and to every 1738 of the population; while the cost of maintenance was at the rate of £4, 10s. per square mile, or about 1½d. per head. The District jail contained a daily average of 414 prisoners in 1875, of whom 356 were male and 58 female. The average cost per inmate amounted to £3, 6s., and the average earnings of each prisoner were 6s. The District contains 15 imperial and 8 local post offices; and there is a telegraph

office at each of the stations on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Education is making satisfactory progress. In 1875, there were 203 schools in Jaunpur, with a roll-call of 7570 scholars. The city of Jaunpur has a *zilá* school for Oriental languages, besides a large religious institution for Arabic and Persian. There are 7 female schools. The total expenditure on education was £3046 in 1875; of which sum £713 was paid from the Provincial treasury, and £2333 from local sources. In 1872, the number of male inhabitants who could read and write amounted to 8651. The District is divided into 5 *tahsíls* and 18 *parganás*. There is only one municipality, Jaunpur. In 1875-76, its total receipts amounted to £2071, and its expenditure to £1921. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 9¼d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Sanitary Aspects.—The climate of Jaunpur is moister, the temperature more equable, and the rain more evenly distributed throughout the year, than in most Districts of the North-Western Provinces. The average annual rainfall was 43 inches for the ten years from 1861 to 1870. During this period, the maximum was 51·6 inches, in 1863-64; while the minimum was 22 inches, in 1864-65. The total number of deaths recorded in the year 1875 was 18,332, or 17·86 per thousand of the population. The average death-rate for the preceding six years was returned at 16·73 per thousand. There are two charitable dispensaries in the District, at Jaunpur and Machhlishahr. During the year 1876 they afforded relief to 10,391 persons.

Jaunpur.—*Tahsíl* of Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 334 square miles, of which 243 were cultivated; pop. (1872), 276,680; land revenue, £30,112; total Government revenue, £32,595; rental paid by cultivators, £50,168; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 9¾d.

Jaunpur. — Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 41′ 31″ N., and long. 82° 43′ 38″ E., on the left or northern bank of the river Gumti, about 15 miles above its junction with the Sái. Pop. (1872), 23,327, including 12,369 Hindus and 10,949 Muhammadans. Jaunpur is a very ancient city, the former capital of a considerable Muhammadan kingdom, which once extended from Budáon and Etáwah to Behar. It abounds in splendid architectural monuments, most of which belong to the Pathán period, when the rulers of Jaunpur made themselves independent of Delhi, and founded an important local dynasty. (*See* JAUNPUR DISTRICT.) The fort of Firoz, an irregular quadrangular building, overlooking the north bank of the Gumti, consists of a stone wall, built round an artificial earthen mound. The materials were obtained from ruined Buddhist or Hindu temples, and carved stones taken from these sources occur profusely in the walls.

The towers and last remaining buildings in the fort were blown up after the Mutiny of 1857, and nothing now exists but the shell. The date of the fort may be placed about 1360. The *hamams* or baths of Ibráhim, which commemorate the name of the great Jaunpur Sultán, were constructed about 1420. The Atala Masjíd or mosque, also built by Ibráhim, in 1418, has now nothing left but a rich screen, flanked by ragged pinnacles. It occupies the site of a Hindu temple, attributed to Rájá Jái Chánd. The Dariba mosque, built by two of Ibráhim's governors, has a domed hall and two wings, masked by a low façade of the peculiar Jaunpur type. A quarter of a mile from the city, some large piers, upholding a screen of great beauty, mark the site of another of Ibráhim's mosques, the Jinjiri Masjíd. The Lál Darwáza, erected by Bíbí Ráji, the queen of Mahmúd, about 1450, is still in good preservation, with handsome cloisters and gates. The Jamá Masjíd or great mosque of Hassan, completed after his fall in 1478, occupies the west side of a terrace, while domed gateways on the three other sides give access to a large quadrangle, 70 yards square, surrounded by a colonnade in two storeys. The splendid bridge over the Gumti, erected by Mumzím Khán, governor under the Mughals, in 1569-73, measures 712 feet in length, and has four large central arches, with six of smaller span on each side. The cost has been estimated at £300,000. During the Mutiny of 1857, Jaunpur formed a centre of disaffection. (*See* JAUNPUR DISTRICT.) The town still possesses a considerable trade. There are 2 railway stations on the Oudh and Rohilkhand line, at the city and civil station. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £2071; from taxes, £1363, or 9¼d. per head of population (35,003) within municipal limits.

Jaunsar Báwar.—Subdivision of Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a rugged triangular wedge of mountains, lying between the valleys of the Jumna and the Tons. Lat. 30° 31′ to 31° 1′ N., and long. 77° 45′ to 78° 7′ E. The whole tract is so hilly that scarcely a single level spot of a hundred yards occurs. The mountains, which belong to the Himálayan range, are largely covered with forests of *deodár*. The highest peak attains an elevation of 9347 feet above sea level. KALSI is the chief town and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Agriculture remains in a backward state, but irrigation from the minor torrents fertilizes the few cultivable patches upon the rugged hillsides. The population consists chiefly of Dhúms, a tribe of low-caste aborigines, Hindus in creed, but scarcely raised above absolute barbarism. Polyandry prevails extensively; education is almost unknown; but crime is comparatively rare. A European detachment occupies the cantonment of CHAKRATA. Area, 343 square miles, of which 29 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 40,046; land revenue, £1969; total Government revenue, £2165.

Jaura.—State in Central India.—*See* JAORA.

Jáwad.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India. Lat. 24° 36′ N., long. 74° 54′ E.; 1400 feet above sea level; estimated pop. 30,000. Stormed in 1818 by the British, and given over to Daulat Ráo Sindhia, to one of whose rebellious adherents it belonged.

Jawadí.—A range of mountains in Tirupatúr *táluk*, Salem District, Madras, lying between 12° 15′ and 12° 40′ N. lat., and between 78° 40′ and 79° 6′ E. long., and extending over an area of 350 square miles, with 145 villages; pop. (1871), 9296. Average height above the sea, 3000 feet. The climate is unhealthy, and unsuited to Europeans. The approaches are difficult, and exclusively by bridle-paths. Some portions of the forest land, containing teak, sandal-wood, etc., have been conserved by Government, and the nomadic system of cultivation has of late been restricted, and in some tracts suppressed.

Jawahír.—Tract of country in Kumáun, North-Western Provinces. —*See* JUHAR.

Jawálamukhi.—Ancient town in Kángra District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 52′ 34″ N., long 76° 21′ 59″ E.; pop. (1868), 3112. Situated on the road from Kángra to Nádáun, at the foot of a precipitous range of hills, forming the northern limit of the Beas (Biás) valley. Once a considerable and opulent town, which still possesses solid ruins testifying to its former prosperity; now chiefly noticeable from the presence of a very holy shrine, surpassing in reputation even that of Kángra. The temple stands above certain jets of combustible gas, issuing from the ground, and kept constantly burning, as a manifestation of the goddess Devi. Seven centuries ago, the deity appeared to a Bráhman in the south, and bid him repair to this place, where he would find a perpetual flame issuing from the earth. The Bráhman obeyed, discovered the spot, and built a temple to the goddess. A conflicting and more ancient account, however, narrates that the flames proceed from the mouth of the Daitya king or demon, Jalandhara (see JALANDHAR DISTRICT), who was overwhelmed by Siva under a pile of mountains. The present temple certainly belongs to Devi. The devotion of centuries has enriched it with many costly offerings, amongst others a gilt roof, presented by Ranjít Sinh in 1815. About 50,000 pilgrims attend the great festival in September or October. Six hot mineral springs occur in the neighbourhood, impregnated with common salt and iodide of potassium. The town still retains some commercial importance as an entrepôt for traffic between the hills and the plains. Principal export—opium from Kullu. Police station, post office, school-house. *Sarái* erected by the Rájá of Patiála, attached to the temple. Eight *dharmsálas* or sanctuaries, with rest-houses for travellers. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £136, or 11⅜d. per head of population (2847) within municipal limits.

Jawálápur.—Town in Sahāranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 55′ 35″ N., long. 78° 9′ 0″ E. Pop. (1872), 9269, consisting of 6582 Hindus and 2687 Muhammadans. Lies in lat. 29° 55′ 33″ N., and long. 78° 9′ E., on the north bank of the Ganges Canal; distant from Rurki (Roorkee) 14 miles north-east, and from Saháranpur 36 miles east. Forms with HARDWAR a municipal union. Many of the Hindu residents are Bráhmans connected with the Hardwár temples, who have a perpetual feud with the Musalmán Rájputs. Police station, post office, school, dispensary. Municipal revenue of Hardwár Union (1875-76), £3150; from taxes, £1576, or 1s. 5½d. per head of population (21,555) within municipal limits.

Jawhár. — Native State within the Political Agency of Tanna, in the Konkán, Bombay, lying between 19° 40′ and 20° 4′ N. lat., and between 73° 2′ and 73° 23′ E. long., entirely surrounded by the British District of Tanna. Estimated area, 534 square miles; pop. (1872), 37,406; estimated gross revenue, inclusive of transit dues, £7152. Towards the south and west, the country is in some places level, but the rest of the territory consists of the rocky and forest-covered tract that everywhere lies at the western foot of the Sahyádri range. Though it contains many fertile valleys with numerous streams, their waters are not used for irrigation. Except in the southern *mahál* of Deshji, the supply fails as the hot season advances. Between June and October the rainfall is heavy. After the close of the rainy season till the end of December, the air retains a considerable degree of moisture. In January and February the dryness and heat increase, followed from March to June by an intensely hot season. During the greater part of the year, the climate is malarious and unhealthy. The prevailing diseases are fever and ague. Besides timber, the country yields rice to a limited extent, and the coarser grains abundantly. The roads, though rugged and hilly, admit of the passage of carts; horses and bullocks are also used for the transport of goods. There are 2 schools with a roll-call of 49 pupils. The present (1875) chief, Malhár Ráo, *alias* Patang Sháh (adopted), is a Hindu of the Koli tribe, twenty-two years of age. He has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. The succession follows the rule of primogeniture, but there is no *sanad* authorizing adoption. In the case of the present chief, the adoption was recognised by the paramount power on receipt of a special payment or *nazaráná*. Jáya Mukney, the founder of this petty State, established himself as a free-booter in the country about Jawhár nearly 550 years ago. He was succeeded by his son Ním Sháh, on whom, about the year 1341, the Emperor of Delhi conferred the title of Rájá.

Jawhár.—Chief town of the State of the same name in the Konkán, in political connection with the Bombay Presidency. Lat. 19° 56′ N.,

and long. 73° 16′ E.; forty-four miles north by south-east of Tanna.

Jáyamangali.—Tributary of the North Pinákini river, which runs through the north-east corner of Túmkúr District, Mysore, and joins the North Pinákini in the adjoining Madras District of Bellary. Its sandy bed affords facilities for irrigation by means of *kapili* wells, and *talgargi* or spring-head streams drawn from the channel.

Jáyátápur.—Port and lighthouse, Ratnágiri, Bombay.—*See* JAITAPUR.

Jáygarh.—Seaport in the Ratnágiri Subdivision of Ratnágiri District, Bombay. Lat. 17° 18′ N., long. 73° 16′ E.; average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74, £55,406, viz. exports, £26,204, and imports, £29,202.

Jeddya Gowden.—Mountain in South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 11° 40′ to 11° 51′ N., long. 78° 42′ to 78° 53′ E.

Jehuli.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal. Pop. (1872), 8480.

Jejuri.—Municipal town in the Purandhar Subdivision of Poona District, Bombay. Lat. 18° 16′ N., long. 74° 12′ E.; pop. (1872), 3102; municipal revenue (1874-75), £273; rate of taxation, 1s. 9d. per head. A place of Hindu pilgrimage.

Jellasore.—Town in Balasore District, Bengal.—*See* JALESWAR.

Jenkal-betta (*'Honey Rock Hill'*).—Magnificent peak of the Western Gháts, in Hassan District, Mysore State.

Jerigurkhadi.—Native State; Khandesh Political Agency, Bombay. —*See* DANG STATES.

Jerimála.—Town in Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 14° 48′ 40″ N., long. 76° 33′ E. Now of no importance, but in the last century the residence of the powerful Poligár, Pennappa Náik, whose territory was reduced by Aurangzeb, who exacted from him a larger tribute and military force. In 1752, the Poligár of Chitaldrúg conquered all the country belonging to the Poligár of Jerimála, who was obliged to serve the former with 500 *peons*, and pay his tribute through him. When Haidar captured Chitaldrúg in 1767, the Jerimála Poligár appealed to him, but was put to death by the Poligár of Chitaldrúg. The whole District was resumed by Tipú in 1787, and the son of Pennappa Náik fled, but regained possession of the country in 1791. When Jerimála was ceded to the Nizám in 1799, the Poligár was allowed to rent this tract at its full value. He died shortly afterwards, and the family is now extinct.

Jerruck (or *Jhirak*).—Deputy Collectorate, and one of the 5 Subdivisions of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Lat. 24° 4′ to 25° 26 30″ N., long. 67° 6′ 15″ to 68° 22′ 30″ E. Bounded on the north by the Sehwan Deputy Collectorate and the Baran river; on the east and south by the Indus and its tributaries; on the west by the sea and Karáchi

táluk. Area, 2271 square miles, or 1,453,440 acres, of which 96,847 are under cultivation, 121,850 cultivable, and 1,234,445 uncultivable; population, according to the Census of 1872, 92,902, or 40 persons to the square mile. The Deputy Collectorate is divided into 3 *táluks*—viz. Tatta, Mírpur Sakro, and Ghorábárí—and subdivided into 20 *tapás*. It contains 142 villages and towns, only 4 of which have a population exceeding 800.

The northern portion of Jerruck consists of a hilly waste, dotted with occasional lakes or *dhands;* the southern stretches out in a flat alluvial plain, broken only by canals, creeks, and branches of the Indus. Six of the older mouths of the river,—the Piti, Juna, Richhal, Hajámro, Kakaiwári, and Khedewári,—besides the Gháro creek, lie within this Subdivision. The Government canals number 49, with an aggregate length of 360 miles, and yield an annual net income of £10,636. The largest of these are the BAGHAR, KALRI, UCHTO, and SIAN. The *zamíndárí* canals number 1321, but are all very small and short. Numerous torrents (*nais*) cause, after heavy rain, considerable loss of cattle, and occasionally damage to the railway, while the floods which they produce by overfilling the *dhands* and canals are at times very serious, all 3 *táluks* suffering equally. The largest of the *dhands* or lakes are the Kinjhar, Sonáhri, and Háláji. The climate and public health vary greatly in different parts of this Subdivision, the town of Jerruck itself being particularly salubrious, while Tatta and the country round are notoriously unhealthy. The average yearly rainfall is only 7½ inches. Sea-fogs prevail over the coast tract to such an extent that wheat cannot be cultivated. The geology, fauna, and flora of Jerruck do not differ materially from those of other parts of KARACHI DISTRICT. The bees of Hajámro are remarkable for the quality of their honey, and for their curious habit of affixing their combs to maritime plants. Extraordinary numbers of field rats are found, which at times do incredible mischief to the crops. They construct granaries underground, and the cultivators, when grain is scarce, often dig up the rats' stores. As elsewhere in Sind, the *bábul* (Acacia arabica) is the principal forest tree. The forests cover a total area of 25,074 acres; and yielded in 1873-74 a revenue, from grazing fees, sales of firewood, charcoal, etc., *bábul* pods for fodder, and cultivation of land within forest limits, of £1425. The forests were all planted between 1795 and 1828, by the Tálpur Mírs. The fisheries are 20 in number, yielding an average annual revenue of £305. The right of fishing is yearly sold by auction to the highest bidder.

The population of the Deputy Collectorate was divided in the Census of 1872 as follows:—Muhammadans, 80,130, including 6152 Baluchis, 1363 Shaikhs, 2306 Memons and Borahs, 26,257 Sindis, 1406 Sayyids, 983 Khwájas, 369 Mughals and Patháns; Hindus, 12,586, being 8934

Vaisyas, 2694 Súdras, 946 Bráhmans, and 12 Kshattriyas. In character, habits, dress, etc., the people of Jerruck do not differ from those of the rest of the Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, and the crime returns show the usual amount of cattle-stealing and housebreaking. The civil suits numbered 359, involving a total amount of £3698; only 3 of the whole were for land, value £42. The administrative and revenue staff consists of a Deputy Collector and Magistrate, assisted by 3 *mukhtiárkárs*, with the powers of a first-class subordinate magistrate; 2 *kotwáls*, exercising the powers of second-class subordinate magistrate; and 20 *tapádárs*. In civil matters, Jerruck is subordinate to the neighbouring Deputy Collectorates of Sehwan and Sháhbandar. The police number 196, or 1 to every 469 of the population; 43 of the whole are mounted. The only jails are the 5 subordinate lock-ups at Jerruck, Tatta, Keti, Sákro, and Kotri Allahrakhyo.

The revenue of the Deputy Collectorate for 1873-74 was £21,077, being £18,489 imperial and £2588 local, derived as follows:—Imperial—land tax, £14,814; *abkári* or excise, £1354; stamps, £733; postal department, £91; law and justice, £302; miscellaneous, £1168: Local—cesses on land and *sayer* or customs, £966; percentage on alienated lands, £48; pounds and ferries funds, £916; fisheries, £657. The Topographical Survey was completed in 1870, but no revenue settlement has yet been introduced. Land is held on provisional or temporary leases, the rate per acre ranging from 8s. for *mahsuli* (garden) land, 4s. for *charkhi*, 3s. for *sáilabi* and *mok* (flooded lands), 2s. for *baráni* (rain-irrigated) lands. The water rate is 6 *pies* (¾d.) per acre. The alienated land in this Subdivision occupies an area of 96,000 acres, 21,000 of which are cultivated, and is distributed among 54 *jágírdárs*. The *seri* grants number 13, covering 250 acres; the number of *máfidárs* is 17.

There are 3 municipalities within the Deputy Collectorate, viz. TATTA, JERRUCK, and KETI, with an aggregate annual income of £2780. The number of Government schools is 7, with 402 pupils.

There are two crops reaped annually, the *kharíf* and *rabí*. Three-fourths of the whole cultivated area are under rice, and the remainder is divided in the usual proportions among the ordinary crops. The only speciality is the *san* (Crotalaria juncea), grown for its fibre, of which nets and fishing gear are made.

The trade of Jerruck is chiefly in agricultural products, the principal mart being KETI, whence exports of the value of £280,324 are annually made. The rest of the Subdivision annually imports cotton cloth, metal work, spices, fruits, sugar, and grain to the value of £23,594; and exports agricultural produce and skins to the value of £17,720. The manufactures, though once of some reputation—notably the Tatta chintzes and glazed pottery—now possess very small importance. More

than 40 fairs are held in this Subdivision; 19 of the largest have an average attendance of about 800 persons, and last from one to fifteen days.

Roads, etc.—The roads of the Deputy Collectorate aggregate nearly 360 miles in length, 270 miles being trunk and postal lines. The great military road from Karáchi (Kurrachee) to Kotri runs, *viâ* Tatta, through the northern portion of Jerruck. There is a travellers' bungalow at Tatta, and there are also 10 *dharmsálás.* The ferries number 36, yielding annually about £400. The Sind Railway passes through the District for about 50 miles, with 4 stations, at Dábeji, Jangsháhi, Jhimpír, and Meting. The telegraph line follows the same route. There are 3 postal lines, with 5 non-disbursing and 3 branch offices.

Antiquities.—The chief objects of antiquarian interest are the ruins of Bambura; the Mári, a building of the 14th century; and the Kalán Kot ruins, extending over 6 square miles on the plateau of the Makli range, which are said to mark the site of a burial-ground, sacred for twelve centuries.

Jerruck (or *Jhirak*).—Municipal town in the Jerruck Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Lat. 25° 3′ 6″ N., long. 68° 17′ 44″ E.; pop. (1872), 1666, consisting of 1137 Muhammadans and 529 Hindus. The annual municipal revenue ranges from £110 to £190. The trade, since the opening of the Sind Railway diverted traffic from this part of the Indus, has fallen off greatly. Formerly there existed an active traffic with the mountain tribes, who brought sheep to exchange for grain, especially rice. The only local manufacture of marked excellence is that of camel saddles. Jerruck stands on an eminence commanding the Indus from both military and commercial points of view; a position so advantageous that Sir Charles Napier regretted not having selected it for the European barracks instead of Haidarábád (Hyderabad). The Deputy Collector resides here, and it is therefore the headquarters of the local subordinate revenue and police establishments. It has a market.

Jesar.—A petty State in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. The area is 1½ square mile. There are 4 chiefs or *pagis.* The revenue in 1875 was estimated at £27; and tribute of £15 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Jessor.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 22° 25′ 50″ and 23° 47′ N. lat., and between 88° 57′ 33″ and 90° 0′ 13″ E. long. Area, exclusive of unsurveyed Sundarbans, 3713 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 2,075,021 persons. The Parliamentary Blue-Book for 1878, however, gives the area at 3658 square miles. The District forms the eastern portion of the Presidency Division. It is bounded on the north and west by Nadiyá District; on the south by the Sundarbans; and on

the east by the District of Farídpur. The administrative headquarters are at JESSOR town, locally called Kasbá, on the Bhairab river.

Physical Aspects.—Jessor forms the central portion of the delta between the Húglí and the united Ganges and Brahmaputra. It is a vast alluvial plain intersected by rivers and water-courses, which at places in the southern portion of the District spread out into large marshes. It naturally divides into three parts—one bounded north and west by an imaginary line drawn from Kesabpur village south of Jessor town to Muhammadpur on the Madhumati; a second lying between that line and the latitude of Bágherhát; and a third, south of the last-named village. The first of these portions is fairly dry, and beyond the reach of the tides; the second or central portion is swampy, and only passable on foot during the dry season; and the third forms the Jessor SUNDARBANS, a mere tangled network of swamps and rivers, in the interstices of which (except when reclamation has been going on) tillage is impossible, and which has no settled population The northern portion of the District is verdant, with extensive groves of date-palms; villages are numerous and large; and the people are prosperous. In the central portion, the population is sparse, the only part of the tract suitable for dwellings being the high land along the banks of rivers. The principal rivers of Jessor are—the Madhumatí (which forms the eastern boundary of the District), with its tributaries the Nabaganga, Chiák, and Bhairab; the Kumár, the Kabadak, the Katkí, the Haríhar, the Bhadrá, and the Athárábánká. As in all deltaic tracts, the banks of the rivers are higher than the adjacent country. These river banks are covered in Jessor with villages and clumps of date-palms, which form a very characteristic feature in the scenery of the District. Within the last century, the rivers in the interior of Jessor have ceased to be true deltaic rivers; and whereas the northern portion of the District formerly lay under water for several months every year, it is now reached only by unusual inundations. The Madhumatí and the Nabagangá are the only rivers which form considerable *chars*, or alluvial sandbanks. The tide reaches as far north as the latitude of Jessor town.

History.—The name Jessor is a corruption of Yashohara, which means 'fame-depriving;' and the origin of this title is thus explained. At the court of Dáúd Khán, the last Pathán King of Bengal, a certain Rájá named Vikramáditya held a high post. When the king was defeated by Akbar, Vikramáditya obtained a grant in the Sundarbans; and in that safe retreat held a large tract of country by force of arms, and established a new city, to which he took so much of the wealth and splendour of Gaur—part of it Dáúd's property—that he was said to have deprived the old capital of its fame. Vikramáditya was succeeded in the principality of Jessor by his son Pratápáditya, the popular hero of the Sundarbans, who gained pre-eminence over the twelve lords

then holding possession of the southern part of Bengal along the coast, but he was eventually defeated and captured by Mán Sinh. The Rájás of Jessor or Chánchrá trace their origin to Bhábeswar Rái, a soldier in the army of Khán-i-Azam, an imperial general, who deprived Rájá Pratápáditya of several fiscal divisions (*parganás*), and conferred them on Bhábeswar. On the death of the latter, in 1588, his son Mahtáb Rám Rái (1588-1629) succeeded him. During the war between Mán Sinh and Pratápáditya, which ended, as has been said, in the defeat and capture of the latter, Mahtab Rám Rái assisted Mán Sinh, and when it was at an end he retained the *parganás* made over to his predecessor. To him succeeded Kandarpá Rái (1619-49), who added considerably to the estates; and he in turn was followed by Manohar Rái (1649-1705), who is regarded as the principal founder of the family. The estate, when he inherited it, was of moderate size, but he acquired one *parganá* after another until, at his death, the property was by far the largest in the neighbourhood. On the death of Manohar, the estate went to Krishna Rám (1705-29), who was followed by Sukh Deb Rái (1729-45). The latter divided the estate into a three-quarters share and a one-quarter share, the former being called the Yusafpur, and the latter the Sayyidpur estate. The latter was given by Sukh Deb to his brother Syám Sundar, who died without issue, leaving it vacant. It was afterwards conferred by the East India Company upon a landholder (who had been dispossessed by the Nawáb of Bengal), in order that he might make a grant to the Company of certain lands near Calcutta. The possessor of the property in 1814, Hajjí Muhammad Mohsin (who died the same year), made over the estate in trust for the Húglí Imámbára, which has ever since enjoyed its revenues. The Yusafpur estate was inherited in 1764 by Sríkánt Rái, who, at the time of the Permanent Settlement, lost *parganá* after *parganá* until his family was left destitute and forced to fall back upon the bounty of the Government. To Sríkánt succeeded, in 1802, Bánikánt, who died in 1817. His son Baradákant, the present Rájá, being a minor, the property was administered by the Court of Wards, who greatly increased its value. In 1823, the Government added to the estate the confiscated *parganá* of Sáhos, and since then has bestowed on the proprietor the title of Rájá Bahádur in recognition of services rendered during the Mutiny.

British administration was completely established in the District in 1781, when the Governor-General ordered the opening of a court at Murali, near Jessor town. Previous to this, however, the revenue or financial administration (*díwání*) had been in the hands of the English, having been transferred to the East India Company with that of the rest of Bengal in 1765. The first Judge and Magistrate of the District was Mr. Henckell, who founded the market called after

him, Henckellganj, and was the first to urge upon the Government the scheme of Sundarbans reclamation. (*See* SUNDARBANS.) To Mr. Henckell succeeded, in 1789, Mr. Rocke, who transferred the civil station from Murali to Jessor, where it still remains. Among the list of Collectors of Jessor is found the name of Mr. R. Thackeray, father of the novelist, who acted in that capacity for a few months in 1805. The changes in jurisdiction in the District of Jessor have been very numerous. When first constituted, the magisterial jurisdiction extended over the present Districts of Farídpur and Jessor, and also included that portion of the Twenty-four Parganás which lies to the east of the Ichhámatí. After many transfers and rectifications of boundary, the District was in 1863 finally reduced to its present dimensions.

Population.—The population of Jessor, as ascertained by the Census of 1872, is 2,075,021 persons, inhabiting 4247 villages and 313,660 houses. The average pressure of the population on the soil throughout the whole surveyed portion of the District is 567 persons to the square mile; number of houses per square mile, 86; persons per house, 6·6. The density of the population varies, however, in a most marked way in different parts of the District. After what has been said above in connection with the physical aspects of the three different portions into which Jessor naturally divides itself, it will be readily understood that the population might be expected to be more and more sparse the farther south we come. And this is the case. The average in the northern tract is 650 per square mile; in the central portion, 550; and in the southern part of the District, where reclamation has been going on, the number of persons per square mile is only 350. Of the total population, 1,051,126 are males and 1,023,895 females; proportion of males, 50·7 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years old—males, 375,819, and females, 292,547; total children, 668,366, or 30 per cent. The excessive proportion of male children is explained by the fact, that the natives of India consider that a girl reaches womanhood at an earlier age than a boy arrives at manhood; many girls are consequently returned as women. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus number 915,413, or 44·1 per cent. of the total population, while the Musalmáns number 1,151,936, or 55·5 per cent., chiefly belonging to the lower classes. The number of Christians is 1142, of whom 1001 are native converts. There are 10 missionary stations in the District. The Bráhma Samáj has a few adherents. Of the higher castes of Hindus, Bráhmans number 51,999; Kshattriyas and Rájputs, 1492. Among the intermediate classes is the most numerous caste in the District, namely, Káyasths (writers, etc.), who number 90,640. Of the lower ranks of the Hindu community, the fishing and boating castes deserve special mention. The fisheries

in the rivers and deeper swamps are very valuable, and the right to fish is a regular tenure paid for like the right to cultivate land. The number of Hindus of fishing and boating castes in Jessor is 87,153, or 4·2 per cent. of the population; and the number of Muhammadans who follow the same occupations is probably even greater. Jessor is noted for a colony of pure Kulin Bráhmans, who live at Lakshmípása, a village 10 miles east of Narál on the right bank of the Nabaganga, where that river joins the Bankána. These Kulins trace their origin to Ramánand Chakrabarttí, who, five generations ago, emigrated from Sarmangal near Káliá in Bákarganj, a great Kulin settlement. Towns, in the ordinary sense of the word, can scarcely be said to exist in the District. The only place with a population of more than 5000 is Jessor town (pop. 8152), which is also the only municipality in the District. There are, according to the Census of 1872, 368 towns containing from 1000 to 5000 inhabitants (of which 329 contain fewer than 2000), 2771 villages with fewer than 500, and 1107 with between 500 and 1000 inhabitants. Among the towns or large villages which, though containing fewer than 5000 inhabitants, are important commercially or otherwise, may be mentioned the following:—Kotchándpur, the largest, and Kesabpur, the second largest, trading place in the District, with numerous sugar-refineries, and a large trade in earthen vessels and brass-work of local manufacture; Naldángá, the residence of the Rájás of that name; Changáchhá, Mágurá, Jhanidah, Chándkhálí, Khájurá, and Binodpur, all considerable trading villages; Muhammadpur, on the right bank of the Madhumatí, founded in the end of the 17th century, and containing many interesting remains of antiquity; Narál, the seat of the first family of landholders in the District; Lakshmípása, to which reference has already been made as the residence of a settlement of Kulin Bráhmans, and which is also a trading place; Khulná, the 'capital of the Sundarbans,' a village of commercial importance, past which the whole boat traffic of the east and north-east passes on its way to Calcutta; Kapilmuni, a market and place of pilgrimage; Henckellganj, established in 1783 by Mr. Henckell; Bágherhát, with the celebrated Shát-gumbaz, or sixty-domed mosque, and many other interesting ruins connected with Khán Jahán, one of the earliest reclaimers of the Sundarbans; and Morrellganj, on the Pánguchí, the property of Messrs. Morrell and Lightfoot. Descriptions of most of these places will be found in their alphabetical order in this work, and a detailed account of them is given in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. ii. pp. 201-239.

Agriculture.—The staple crop in Jessor is rice, of which there are three harvests—*áman*, *áus*, and *boro*. The times of sowing and reaping vary in different parts of the District. In the north, *áman* or winter rice is sown in April and May, and reaped in November or December;

in the Sundarbans it is sown in April and reaped in January. The land for this crop is ploughed four times before sowing, and, except in marsh lands, the young shoots are transplanted in July. For *áus* rice the ground is ploughed five or six times, the seed is sown on higher ground, there is no transplanting, and the land yields a second crop. *Boro* rice land is hardly ploughed at all; the seed is scattered broadcast in the marshes as they dry up; and the shoots are transplanted when a month old, and sometimes again a month later. Among the other crops of the District are barley, Indian corn, peas, mustard, jute, tobacco, potatoes, sugar-cane, indigo, *pán*, dates, etc. There are no accurate statistics regarding the extent of land under cultivation, or the out-turn of the different crops. According to the most trustworthy estimate, more than a million acres are under rice, 43,200 under oil-seeds, 10,600 under barley, 52,100 under pulse, and 236,000 acres under other crops—making a total cultivated area of 1,381,800 acres. These figures must, however, be considered as only approximately correct. The estimated area covered by date-palms for the manufacture of sugar is 17,500 acres. The trees do not commence bearing until they are six or seven years old, but afterwards they continue bearing for about thirty years. The juice is collected from November to February. A tree in good bearing will produce 5 cwts. of juice, from which 84 lbs. of molasses or *gúr*, yielding about 30 lbs. of sugar, may be made; an acre would yield about 3 tons of sugar, valued at from £50 to £60. The area under indigo in Jessor has been estimated at 31,333 acres, and the total estimated produce for the season 1872-73 was 203 tons, valued at £114,400. In 1856, the area under indigo was greater by upwards of 30,000 acres; but a large number of factories closed in consequence of the disturbances of 1859 to 1861, of which some account will be found in the article on NADIYA DISTRICT. At present the number of European factories throughout the District is about 55, besides 50 worked in the interest of native proprietors under European or native management. There are two methods of cultivation—one by hired factory labour (the *níj* or *khámár* system), and the other by husbandmen who contract to cultivate the plant for the factory. Under the former system, the factory provides the means of cultivation, the total expense amounting to about 18s. an acre; under the latter system, the grower receives an advance of 12s. to 18s. an acre, and is supplied with seed, but bears all the other expenses of cultivation. There are two seasons for indigo sowing—namely, autumn (October) and spring (April); the latter crop is more precarious, but also more abundant than the former. Among the land tenures of the District, the *mukarrárí* or permanent tenures in Naldí *parganá* deserve special notice. The possessors of Sundarbans grants are called *tálukdárs;* several of them hold considerable estates in Jessor, Bákarganj, or the

Twenty-four Parganás, but many are residents in the portion of this District immediately north of the Sundarbans. These are men who, being in comfortable circumstances, have money enough to carry on Sundarbans reclamation with success, although they cannot afford to leave everything in the hands of agents. They are therefore immediately interested in the reclamation scheme, and to them is due much of the agricultural improvement and extension since the Permanent Settlement. Rates of rent vary in Jessor according to the description and position of the land, from 9d. an acre for rice land, to £1, 16s. an acre for *pán* land. The rate for ordinary rice land throughout the District is about 6s. an acre.

Natural Calamities.—Blights occur occasionally, but rarely to any serious extent. The District is, as might be expected, subject to heavy floods, which have sometimes been immediately followed by disastrous cyclones. At the end of last century, inundations happened every two or three years; but in consequence of the silting up of several of the rivers in the north, the waters which formerly overflowed that part of the District now find a wide channel in the Madhumatí, and floods are comparatively rare. Among recent inundations, those of 1838, 1847, 1856, and 1871 are the most memorable, that first mentioned (1838) having been specially severe. Formerly the keeping up of the numerous embankments was one of the Collector's most important duties; now, owing to the changes in river-beds already referred to, embankments have become almost useless. Drought is not common in Jessor, and the famines with which the District has been visited have been perhaps more often due to floods. The only serious drought within the memory of the present generation was that of 1866. During the scarcity which followed, the maximum price of ordinary paddy was 15 lbs., and of rice 10 lbs., for a shilling.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of Jessor is carried on chiefly by means of permanent markets, but there is also considerable traffic at the numerous fairs and religious gatherings held throughout the District. The chief exports are sugar—both *dhulná* (half-refined) and *páká* (white, granular)—indigo, rice, pulse; and, from the Sundarbans, timber, honey, shells, etc. The principal imports are salt, English piece-goods and hardware. The exports greatly exceed the imports in value. The certificate tax of 1868 estimated the trading profit of the District at £320,000. The principal manufactures of Jessor are date-sugar and indigo. Throughout the north and west of the District, the husbandmen depend more upon date cultivation than upon any other branch of agriculture; and several towns and large villages are altogether supported by sugar manufacture. A very interesting and clear account of the cultivation of the date and the manufacture of sugar is given in Mr. Westland's Report on Jessor (to which this article is throughout

much indebted), and quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. ii. pp. 280-298. The area which would be occupied by all the date-trees in the District, if they were placed together, has been estimated at 17,500 acres, and the produce of sugar per acre at nearly 3 tons, valued at from £50 to £60. The same causes which have led to the decline of indigo cultivation in NADIYA DISTRICT, have affected Jessor in a similar way. The area under this crop in 1870 was 84 square miles; in 1872-73, it had fallen to 49 square miles. A well-known Bengálí newspaper, the *Amritá Bázár Patriká* is published in this District at the village of Amritá Bázár.

Administration.—Reference has already been made to the numerous changes which have taken place in the jurisdiction of Jessor, and these must be borne in mind in comparing the revenue and expenditure at different periods. In 1787-88, the revenue amounted to £80,728, and the expenditure on civil administration to £6400. In 1868-69, the total revenue of the District was returned at £117,185, and the total civil expenditure at £34,993, showing an increase in the eighty years of 45 per cent. in revenue, and of 500 per cent. in expenditure. In 1876-77, the total revenue had increased to £177,473. The land tax supplies by far the greatest proportion of the revenue. It is very much the same in amount now as it was in 1790, when the area of the District was much larger than at present. The revenue given above for the year 1787-88 was derived entirely from the land. Subdivision of property has gone on very rapidly under British rule. In 1790, the number of estates on the rent-roll of the then much larger District was 46, held by 57 proprietors or coparceners, who paid a total land revenue of £102,178, equal to an average payment of £2221 from each estate and £1792 from each individual proprietor or coparcener. In 1871, the number of estates was 2844, paying a total land revenue of £104,519, equal to an average payment of £36, 15s. from each estate. Protection to person and property has increased not less rapidly. In 1781, there were only 2 magisterial and 2 civil courts in the District. In 1850, there were 4 magisterial and 19 civil courts, with 6 European officers stationed in the District. In 1869, the number of magisterial courts had risen to 14, and of civil courts to 23. For police purposes, Jessor is divided into 24 *thánás* or police circles, with 10 outpost stations. The regular District police consisted in 1877 of 558 men of all ranks, maintained at a cost of £11,563. In addition to these, there was a municipal force of 76 men, costing £355, and a village watch of 4552 men, costing in money and lands an estimated sum of £18,280. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property in Jessor consisted in that year of 5186 officers and men, or 1 man to every 0·70 square mile of the area, or to every 400 of the population. The total cost of

maintaining this force was £30,198, equal to a charge of £8, 5s. 1d. per square mile, or 3½d. per head of the population. Jessor had at one time a very unenviable notoriety for *dákáiti* or gang robbery, but this crime has now been almost stamped out. There are 6 jails in the District; average daily jail population in 1877, 501·09. Education has made rapid progress in Jessor of late years. In 1856-57, there were 6 Government and aided schools, attended by 454 pupils. In 1860-61, the number of such schools was 9, with 555 pupils; and in 1870-71, the number of these schools had increased to 390, and of pupils to 12,349. In addition to these, there were 188 private schools, with an estimated attendance of 3538 pupils. In 1877-78, the number of Government and aided schools was 798, with 26,138 pupils. The postal statistics show a rapid expansion. During the ten years from 1861 to 1871, the net postal revenue had nearly doubled, while the expenditure had only increased by 27 per cent.

Medical Aspects, etc.—The climate of Jessor does not differ from that of the other Districts of Lower Bengal. April, May, and June are here, as elsewhere, very trying, the average mean temperature for these months being 83·6° F., which is very slightly above the monthly mean for July and August. The mean temperature in November is 72° F.; in December, 64·9°; and in February, 70·8° F. Average annual rainfall, about 65 inches. Malarious diseases are, as might be expected from the nature of the country, very prevalent, intermittent fever being common throughout the year. Cholera breaks out every hot weather, and sometimes also in October and November. There are 11 charitable dispensaries in the District.

Jessor. — Headquarters Subdivision of Jessor District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 49′ to 23° 27′ N., long. 89° 1′ 45″ to 89° 28′ 45″ E.; area, 899 square miles; villages, 1188; houses, 94,769; pop. (1872), 590,283, of whom 212,035 are Hindus, 377,356 Muhammadans, 427 Christians, and 465 of other denominations. Number of persons per square mile, 657; villages per square mile, 1·32; houses per square mile, 105; inmates per house, 6·2; proportion of males to total population, 50·2 per cent. In 1870-71, the Subdivision contained 14 magisterial and revenue courts; 6 police circles; a regular police force 267 strong, and a village watch of 1499 men; cost of Subdivisional administration returned at £32,329, 16s.

Jessor (also called *Kasbá*).—Chief town of Jessor District, Bengal, and administrative headquarters of the District; situated on the Bhairab river, in lat. 23° 10′ 5″ N., long. 89° 15′ 15″ E. Pop. (1872), 8152, consisting of 4372 Hindus, 3545 Muhammadans, 179 Christians, and 56 'others.' Number of males, 4639; females, 3513. Jessor is the only municipality in the District; municipal income (1876-77), £1245; incidence of taxation, 2s. 9d. per head of population within

municipal limits. The town is of no commercial importance, and no special manufacture is carried on. The *bázár* merely supplies the town and its vicinity. In addition to the usual public offices, jail, school-house, etc., Jessor has a small public library, church with parsonage attached, two cemeteries, and a charity hospital. A temple in the neighbourhood contains an image of Raghunáth, and is maintained by an endowment of £410 per annum; founded in 1813. Besides the town proper, the villages of Purána, Kasbá, Bághahar, Sankarpur, and Chánchrá lie within the municipal limits. They are chiefly inhabited by people connected with the courts and public offices, or employed by the residents of the town. The residence of the Rájás of Jessor (*see* JESSOR DISTRICT) is at Chánchrá, a mile south of the town. The palace was once surrounded by a rampart and fosse, of which only the remains are now traceable. Near the palace is a large tank, dug by one of the Rájás, and called the Chor-márá ('thief-beating') tank. It is said that the Rájás' jail was close to the tank, hence its name.

Jetpur Bhílka.—Native State in Káthiáwár, Bombay, consisting of 142 villages, with 18 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £80,000; tribute of £5026 to the British Government, £516 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £411 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Jetpur.—Fortified town in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 21° 45′ 30″ N., long. 70° 48′ 30″ E.; 40 miles south-west of Rájkot, and 63 miles north-east of Porbandar. Pop. (1872), 9599.

Jewár.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 7′ 45″ N., long. 77° 36′ 5″ E.; pop. (1872), 7399, consisting of 5312 Hindus and 2087 Muhammadans. Lies among the ravines of the high bank which separates the uplands from the Jumna valley. The low-lying plain stretches for some miles from the town to the river's edge. Houses overcrowded; well-drained site, and good sanitary arrangements. Handsome residences in market-place; excellent shops in *bázár*. Centre of a *mahál* under Akbar; anciently known as Jawáli, from the name of a Bráhman anchorite. In the 12th century, when the crusade against the Meos took place, Jádon Rájputs, invited from Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) by the Bráhmans of Jewár, settled in the town, and expelled the Meos. The well-known Begam Sumru held Jewár till her death in 1836, when it lapsed to Government. Some 1500 Jágas act as a college of heralds for the neighbouring Rájput families. Manufacture of cotton rugs and carpets. Hindu fair in the month of Bhadra. Anglo-vernacular school, post office, police station. House tax in 1872-73 yielded a local revenue of £236, or 7⅞d. per head of population.

Jeypore.—Native State and town in Rájputána.—*See* JAIPUR.

Jeypore.—*Zamíndárí* and town, Vizagapatam District, Madras.—*See* JAIPUR.

Jeysulmere.—Native State and town in Rájputána.—*See* JAISALMIR.

Jhábua (*Jabuah*).—The principal guaranteed Chiefship in the Bhíl Agency, under the Central Indian Agency and the Government of India. Estimated area, 1500 square miles, of which only a small proportion is inhabited or cultivated. The State lies between lat. 22° 32′ and 23° 18′ N., and long. 74° 17′ and 75° 6′ E. Jhábua is said to derive its name from having been about two centuries and a half ago the residence of Jhábú Náik, a celebrated Bhíl freebooter, who infested these hills and built a small fort. The present chief is a lineal descendant of a younger branch of the ancient Ráhtor chiefs of Jodhpur. One of his ancestors, Kishan Dás, did good service to the Emperor of Delhi, Alá-ud-dín, in restoring his authority in Bengal, and punishing the Bhíl chiefs of Jhábua, who had murdered the family of a governor of Guzerat. The whole of the possessions of the conquered Bhíl chiefs were granted to him as a reward, with high titles and royal insignia. Thus things continued until the invasion of the Marhattás, when Holkar seized some of the finest Districts, and so crippled the State that in 1817 its revenue had become almost nominal. It is remarkable, however, that Holkar left to its rulers the right to collect in these Districts the fourth part of the revenues which the Marhattás exacted from the country that they conquered. There are about twenty families of rank in this State, who pay £1500 a year in tribute to Holkar, and £2500 to their own chief. In lieu of the tribute of £3500, which Holkar claimed from this State, lands were assigned to him, through the mediation of the British Government.

The Jhábua possessions, formerly of considerable extent and value, are now comprised within very narrow limits. What remains to the State may be described as a mountainous and woody tract. It consists chiefly of extensive ranges of hills, seldom abrupt or rising to any great height, and covered for the most part with thick jungle of small but valuable timber-trees, chiefly teak and blackwood. These ranges, as a rule, run nearly north and south, at distances from each other varying from 1 to 5 or 6 miles. The intermediate valleys are watered by numerous small rivulets, tributaries of the Narbadá (Nerbudda), the Mahi, and the Anas. The latter especially, taking its rise in the south, and running through the centre of the State, with its several branches and feeders, contributes greatly to the fertility of Jhábua. The cultivator in these valleys is able to raise a second or 'dry' crop, an advantage unknown in many of the southern and eastern parts of the State. The soil is for the most part good, and repays with little culture the toils of the cultivator. The hills abound with minerals, especially iron and copper ores; but these, for want of skill or industry, are comparatively valueless.

The population in 1875 was estimated to number 55,000, chiefly Bhíls of the agricultural class, a hardy, industrious, but wild race. The products of the State are more than sufficient for the needs of the inhabitants. The surplus, chiefly gram and, in the southern and plain Districts, wheat, is exchanged for the numerous articles of necessity or luxury which the neighbouring Province of Guzerat affords. The principal rain crops are Indian corn, rice, *kúra*, *múg*, *urad*, *badli*, and *samli*. The 'dry' or second crops are gram and wheat. Small quantities of cotton and poppy are raised, but only in two or three places, and not sufficient for home consumption. In the Pitlawád and other Districts in the plains, sugar-cane is grown to a considerable extent. The gardens produce ginger, garlic, onions, and most of the vegetables common to the rest of Málwá. In the greater part of this State, as in most hilly and Bhíl Districts,—the soil not admitting of regular cultivation, but merely of patches in the more fertile parts,—instead of admeasurement or regular allotments of ground, the system has been adopted of taxing the cultivator according to the number of pairs of bullocks used by him in agriculture. The whole of the revenue duties and village government are in the hands of the hereditary Bhíl Pátels or head-men. Including the Districts held by Holkar in lieu of tribute, which yield about £3500, the gross revenues of Jhábua were estimated in 1875 at about £22,500. The State pays £147 towards the cost of the Málwá Bhíl corps. The Rájá of Jhábua, Gopal Sinh, is a Rahtor Rájput. He receives a salute of 11 guns, and maintains a military force of 50 horse and 200 foot. The chief town, Jhábua, is situated in lat. 22° 45′ N., long. 74° 38′ E.

Jhajhar.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 16′ N., long. 77° 42′ 15″ E. Pop. (1872), 5632, consisting of 3083 Hindus and 2549 Muhammadans. Distant from Bulandshahr 15 miles south-west. Founded by Sayyid Muhammad Khán, a Baluch who accompanied Humáyun in his raid, and made the town a refuge for runaways and outcasts. His descendants in the ninth generation still own the soil. Before the Mutiny, Jhajhar supplied the light cavalry with many Baluch recruits. Post office, police station, village school.

Jhajjar.—Southern *tahsíl* of Rohtak District, Punjab, consisting of a somewhat sandy plain, growing marshy as it approaches the Najafgarh *jhíl*, and intersected by minor water-courses. Pop. (1868), 111,109, or 236 to the square mile.

Jhajjar.—Municipal town in Rohtak District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; formerly the capital of a Native State, and afterwards the civil station of a British District, now removed to Rohtak. Lat. 28° 36′ 33″ N., long. 76° 41′ 10″ E.; pop. (1868), 12,617, consisting of 7461 Hindus, 5134 Muhammadans, 7 Síkhs,

and 15 Christians. Situated on the plain, 35 miles west of Delhi; founded at the time of the first Muhammadan conquest of Delhi, in 1193. The town was almost ruined by the great famine of 1783, but has since regained its prosperity. In 1796, Nijábat Alí Khán became Nawáb of Jhajjar. He was son of Murtáza Khán, a Pathán soldier of fortune under Sháh Alam. Together with his two brothers, he took service with Sindhia, from whom they obtained extensive grants, with the titles of Nawáb of Jhajjar, Bahádurgarh, and Pataodi. After the British conquest, these grants were confirmed and enlarged. But when the Mutiny broke out, Abdul Rahmán Khán, the reigning Nawáb, threw off his allegiance, together with his cousin of Bahádurgarh. Both were captured and tried, and the Nawáb of Jhajjar was condemned to death, his estates being confiscated by the British Government. A District of Jhajjar was organized out of the new territory, but in 1861 the headquarters were removed to Rohtak, with which District Jhajjar was incorporated. Small and languishing trade in grain and country produce, the town lying remote from modern trade routes. Considerable manufacture of pottery. *Tahsíli*, police station, post office, custom-house, school-house, dispensary. Ruined tanks and tombs surround the town. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £568, or 10⅞d. per head of population (12,465) within municipal limits.

Jhálakáti (or *Mahárájganj*).—Municipal village in Bákarganj District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 38′ 30″ N., long. 90° 15′ E.; situated at the junction of the Jhálakátí and Nálchiti rivers. One of the largest timber markets in Eastern Bengal, especially for the sale of *sundrí* wood. Extensive export trade in rice and paddy; imports of salt. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £133; rate of taxation, 11d. per head of population. Fair held here annually in November at the *Diwálí* festival, which is attended by about 8000 persons.

Jhaláwár.—Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Rájputána Agency and the Government of India. The State mainly consists of two detached tracts. The larger one is bounded on the north by the State of Kotah; on the east by Sindhia's territory and a detached District of the Tonk State; on the south by the petty State of Rájgarh, outlying portions of the Marhattá States of Sindhia and Holkar, a detached District of the Dewas State, and the State of Jáora (Jaura); and on the west by detached Districts belonging to Sindhia and Holkar. This portion of the State lies between lat. 24° 48′ to 23° 48′ N., and long. 75° 55′ to 77° E., and contains the capital, JHALRA PATAN. The lesser detached area is bounded on the north, east, and south by the Gwalior State, and on the west by Kotah. It lies between lat. 25° 5′ to 25° 25′ N., and long. 77° 25′ to 76° 55′ E. The chief town in this tract is Sháhábád. The area of the whole State is 2500 square miles. Estimated pop. 226,000 (1875).

Physical Aspects.—The main portion of Jhaláwár is situated on a raised plateau, gradually rising from 1000 feet in the north to 1500 feet above sea level in the south. The northern, eastern, and part of the southern portions are very hilly, and intersected by numerous streams. The hills are for the most part covered with timber and grass, and frequently enclose lakes, which have been formed by damming up the outlets of natural basins. The rest of this tract is a rich undulating plain, dotted with evergreen trees. Sháhábád is, on the west, an elevated tableland, very hilly and covered with thick jungle. Speaking generally, the soil is rich, consisting in great part of the dark clayey mould, which produces valuable crops, such as opium, etc. Locally the soils are divided into 3 classes—(1) *káli*, a rich black loam; (2) *dhámni*, of a lighter colour, but equally fertile; (3) *lálpili*, a yellowish red soil, by far the poorest of the three. It is estimated that about one-quarter of the cultivable area consists of *káli*, one-half of *dhámni*, and one-quarter of *lálpili* soil. At places the presence of rock and *kankar* close to the surface interferes with the productiveness of the *káli* and *dhámni* soils.

Of the many streams running through the territory, the following are the most important:—The Parwan enters the State at the south-east extremity, and winds its way for 50 miles up to the point where it enters Kotah; half-way, it is joined by the Newáj, another good-sized stream. For 16 miles of its length, the Parwan forms the boundary line between Jhaláwár and Kotah State. There are two ferries on this river; one at Manohar Thánà, the other at Chachurni. A ferry at Churilia crosses the Newáj.—The Káli Sind flows for a distance of some 30 miles through the State. Its bed is rocky, the banks precipitous, and in parts lined with trees. There is a ferry at Bhonrása.—The Aú river, flowing from the south-western corner, traverses the State for a length of 60 miles, dividing Jhaláwár from Holkar's territory and the Tonk Districts in the south, and Kotah in the north. It joins the Káli Sind at the point where that stream enters Kotah. The bed of this river is less rocky than the Káli Sind, its banks are precipitous, and in parts where the foliage reaches the water's edge, it is picturesque. Ferries cross it at Suket and Bhilwári.—The Chhota Káli Sind, with a ferry at Gangrar, flows only for a short distance through the south-western portion of the State.

The following extract from a brief memorandum by the Superintendent of the Survey, shows the geological formation of the country:—'Two of the main rock series of India are well exposed. Jhalra Pátan, the capital, stands on Vindhyán strata, at the northern edge of the great spread of basaltic rocks known as the Deccan trap formation, this northern area of it being also often mentioned as the Málwá trap. These Vindhyáns belong to the upper division in the Geological Survey

classification of this great Indian rock system. The beds about Jhalra Pátan are considered to belong to the Rewah or middle group of them, and consist of sandstones and shales, with a band of limestone. Over the greater part of this Vindhyán area the strata are quite undisturbed, and their habit is to weather into scarped plateaux or ridges, having one face steep and the other sloping. These are capped by the sandstone, the low ground being eroded out of the shales. There are many varieties of basaltic rocks, hard with columnar and ball structure or amorphous, also vesicular and amygdaloidal in every degree, and soft crumbling ash-like beds, both earthy and vesicular. The age of the Vindhyán formation is quite unknown, beyond the fact that it must be at least as old as the palæozoic. The trap is certainly either upper cretaceous or lower tertiary.' Iron, and red and yellow clays used for dyeing cloth are found in the Sháhábád District.

History.—The ruling family of Jhaláwár belongs to the Jhalá clan of Rájputs. Their ancestors were petty chiefs of Halwad in the District of Jhaláwár, in Káthiáwár. About 1709 A.D., one Bhao Sinh, a younger son of the head of the clan, set out from home with his son and a small troop of followers, to try his fortune at Delhi. At Kotah, Bhao Sinh left his son Madhu Sinh with the Mahárájá of Kotah, and went on himself to Delhi, where all trace of him ends. Madhu Sinh rose into great favour with the Kotah chief, who married his eldest son to Madhu Sinh's sister, and gave him a grant of the estate of Nandla, with the post of Faujdár, which included not only the command of the troops, but that of the castle, the residence of the sovereign. This procured him the respectful title of Mámá, or maternal uncle, from the younger members of the prince's family, a title which habit has perpetuated with his successors. Madhu Sinh was succeeded in the office of Faujdár by his son Madan Sinh, and it then became hereditary in the family. Himmat Sinh followed Madan Sinh, and was in his turn succeeded by his nephew Zalím Sinh, who was at the time only eighteen years of age. Three years later, Zalím Sinh was the means of securing victory for the troops of Kotah over the army of Jáipur, but he afterwards fell into disfavour with the Rájá in consequence of some rivalry in love. Being dismissed from his office, he migrated to Udáipur (Oodeypore), where he did good service. But when the Kotah Rájá was on his deathbed, he sent for Zalím Sinh, and committed his son Ahmad Sinh and the country to his charge. From this time, Zalím Sinh was the real ruler of Kotah. He raised it to a wonderful state of prosperity; and under his administration, which lasted over forty-five years, the Kotah territory was respected by all parties—Muhammadan, Marhattá, and Rájput (see KOTAH). In 1838, it was resolved, with the consent of the chief of Kotah, to dismember the State, and to create the new principality of Jhaláwár as a separate provision for the descendants of

Zalím Sinh. The Districts then severed from Kotah were considered to represent a revenue of 12 *lákhs* of rupees (£120,000), or one-third of the income of the State. The new State also became responsible for one-third of the debts of Kotah; and by treaty acknowledged the supremacy of the British Government, agreed to supply troops according to available means, and to pay an annual tribute of £8000. Madan Sinh received the title of Mahárájá Ráná, was granted a salute of 15 guns, and placed on the same footing as the other chiefs in Rájputána. He was succeeded by Pirthi Sinh, who, during the Mutiny of 1857-58, did good service by conveying to places of safety several Europeans who had taken refuge in his State. He was succeeded in 1876 by his adopted son, Bakht Sinh, then in his eleventh year. On accession, in accordance with family custom, which enjoins that only the four names of Zalím Sinh, Madhu Sinh, Madan Sinh, and Prithi Sinh are to be assumed by the rulers of this house, he took the name of Zalím Sinh. During his minority he is studying at the Mayo College in Ajmere, and the State is administered by a council under the superintendence of a British officer. A military force is maintained of 20 field and 75 other guns, 150 artillerymen, 425 cavalry, and 4400 infantry.

Agriculture.—In Jhaláwár all the ordinary Indian grains are cultivated. In the southern Districts opium is extensively grown for the Bombay market. Throughout the rest of the State, wheat and opium are the chief crops, except in Sháhábád, where the staple is *bájra* (Holcus spicatus). Irrigation is principally carried on by means of wells, water generally lying near the surface. Near Jhalra Pátan, however, is a large artificial lake, from which water is drawn by a channel 2 miles long. In 1876, it was estimated that about 507,418 acres, or barely two-fifths of the total area of the State, were cultivated. Of the untilled portion, more than one-third is cultivable; the remainder consists of hilly and waste land.

Revenue.—The total land revenue in 1876 was returned at £174,719, of which sum £132,194 reached the Treasury, the balance being alienated in *jágírs* or feudal holdings, or in religious grants. The theory that the State is lord of the soil is well carried out in Jhaláwár. The cultivators are, as a rule, nominally occupancy tenants, but the caprice of various managers seems to have made them in reality tenants-at-will of the officials. The *jágírdárs* furnish horses and men for the police service of the State, and present themselves at headquarters on festivals.

The police organization is very complicated. It numbers about 100 horse and 2000 foot, who are distributed over the country. A central jail exists, in which the prisoners are employed in road-making and the manufacture of paper, rugs, and clothes. Education is at present very backward in the State. In the Districts, the village priest teaches the

young people (chiefly the sons of Bráhmans and Banias) the method of keeping accounts and the rudiments of reading and writing Hindí. In the city of Jhalra Pátan, and in the Chhaoni or cantonment, there are schools in which Hindí, Urdu, and English are taught, but the results as yet have not been very successful.

Population.—The population was estimated in 1875 at 226,000 persons, but the statistics on this head are far from trustworthy. The majority are Hindus; Jains are few in number, but influential. There are a considerable number of Muhammadans, most of whom are Turkia Bohras of the Shiá persuasion from Guzerat. Among the Hindus, most of the Rájputs belong to the Jhalá family. Of the other classes of Hindus, the Maháјans or Baniás are well represented.

Means of Communication.—The only metalled roads in the State are in the cantonment; one leads thence to Jhalra Pátan, 4 miles distant. A metalled way is in course of construction from the boundary of Kotah State to the Chhaoni, a length of 18 miles. It will meet a road that is being made in Kotah, and thus establish good communications between the two places. All other roads are simply cart tracks, which in the rains become useless for wheeled traffic. The principal of these lead towards the high road between Agra and Bombay, towards Agra and Indore, to the south-west towards Ujjain, to the west in the direction of Nimach (Neemuch). Along the south-east and south routes traffic is carried on with Bombay through Indore, opium being exported, and English cloths imported; grain from Bhopál is also imported by these routes. By the north-west route grain from Hadoti, and a small quantity of cloth from Agra, is imported. The chief towns in the State are Jhalra Pátan and the Chhaoni, Sháhábád, and Kailwára.

Climate.—The climate resembles that of Central India, and is generally healthy. The hot weather is less severe than in Northern Rájputána, the thermometer during the day in the shade ranging from 85° to 88° F. The temperature during the rains is cool and pleasant, and in the cold weather frosts occasionally occur. No trustworthy register of the rainfall has been kept; but judging from the record kept at Agar (a station in Sindhia's territory, about 60 miles south of Jhalra Pátan), the annual rainfall is probably between 30 and 40 inches.

Jhalera.—One of the guaranteed Girásia or mediatized chiefships, under the Bhopál Agency, the Central India Agency, and the Government of India. The chief, Thákur Datar Sinh, receives from Sindhia a pecuniary allowance, in lieu of rights over land, of Hála Rs. 1200 (say £120). This is paid through the Political Agent, to whom also the Thákur is subordinate in his administration.

Jhalotar-Ajgáin.—*Parganá* of Mohán *tahsíl*, Unao District, Oudh; situated between Mohán Aurás on the north, and Harha on the south. Originally constituted a *parganá* in the reign of Akbar.

Area, 98 square miles, of which 55 are cultivated; Government land revenue demand, £9228; average incidence, 2s. 11¼d. per acre. The prevailing tenure is imperfect *pattidárí*, 46,650 out of the total of 62,657 acres being thus held; of the balance, 12,096 acres are *zamíndárí*, and 3910 *tálukdárí*. Pop. (1869), 58,542 Hindus and 3617 Muhammadans—total, 62,159, viz. 32,685 males and 29,474 females. Number of villages, 103; average density of population, 634 per square mile. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway intersects the *parganá*, with a station at Kusumbhi. Five market villages.

Jhalra Pátan.—Town in Rájputána, the capital of the State of JHALAWAR; in lat. 24° 32′ N., and long. 76° 12′ E. Situated at the foot of a low range of hills running from south-east to north-west, the drainage being collected into a good-sized lake by a large and very solid masonry dam, about two-thirds of a mile long, on which stand sundry temples and buildings, as well as the old palace. The town lies behind this dam, the general level of the ground being the same height as the water of the lake in the cold weather. Between the city walls and the foot of the hills stretch a number of gardens, watered by a small canal brought from the lake. Except on the lake side, the city is protected by a good masonry wall with circular bastions and a ditch capable of being supplied by the lake. The ditch, however, ceases in the centre of the eastern face. From the west, running south of the city at a distance of 400 or 500 yards, flows the Chandrabágh river, which then bends to the north-east, and, passing through the hills, joins the Káli Sind after a course of about 4 miles through open country. The old town of Jhalra Pátan was situated a little to the south of the present site, along the bank of the Chandrabágh. There is considerable diversity of opinion as to the derivation of the name. According to Tod, Jhalra Pátan means the 'City of Bells,' as the old town, being a place of some sanctity, contained 108 temples with numerous bells. Others connect the name of the town with the Jhalá clan. Thornton considers the most plausible etymology to be *jhalra*, 'a spring of water,' and *pátan*, a 'town.' The present city was founded in 1796 by Zalím Sinh, who also established the Chhaoni, a permanent cantonment about 4 miles from the city, with which it is connected by a metalled road. Here are situated the Mahárájá Rána's palace and all the various courts and public offices. The Chhaoni is situated on a rising stretch of rocky ground, about 2½ miles from the strong fort of Gagron. Its present great want is a proper water supply for drinking and bathing purposes. The population is considered to be larger than that of the town proper. The chief bankers live at Jhalra Pátan. The mint and other State establishments are there also. It is the headquarters of the Jhalra Pátan *parganá*, while the cantonment may be considered as the headquarters of the Jhaláwár Darbár.

Jhalu. — Agricultural town in Bijnáur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 5979. Situated in lat. 29° 20′ 10″ N., and long. 78° 15′ 30″ E., on the Dhámpur road, 6 miles east of Bijnor.

Jhamka.—One of the petty States in South Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £400; and tribute of £18 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Jhamma.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £401; and tribute of £46 is paid to the British Government.

Jhampodar.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 3 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £412; and tribute of £13 is paid to the British Government.

Jhang.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 30° 35′ and 32° 4′ N. lat., and between 71° 39′ and 73° 38′ E. long., with an area of 5712 square miles, and a population in 1868 of 348,027 persons. Jhang forms the northern District of the Múltán (Mooltan) Division. It is bounded on the north by Sháhpur and Gujránwála; on the west by Derá Ismáil Khán; and on the south-east by Montgomery. The administrative headquarters are at MAGHIANA, a suburb of the town of JHANG.

Physical Aspects. — The District of Jhang comprises an irregular triangle, artificially constituted for administrative purposes from portions of three separate tracts. Its eastern half embraces a large part of the high dorsal ridge in the Rechna Doáb; thence it stretches across the Chenáb into the wedge of land between that stream and the Jhelum (Jhílam), whose waters unite a few miles below the town of Jhang; while westward again the boundary runs beyond the joint river, far into the heart of the Sind Ságar (Saugor) Doáb. The Rávi also bounds the District for a few miles along its southern edge. So artificial a tract can hardly be said to possess any common natural features of its own. Starting from the eastern border, we come first upon the *bár* or wild upland plain of the Rechna Doáb, broken here and there by sandy depressions, and inhabited only by pastoral nomads, who dwell in moveable hamlets of thatched huts. In the south, however, along the bank of the Rávi, and to the west, along the Chenáb, before and after its junction with the Jhelum, strips of comparatively fertile lowland support a dense population. Some 7 miles east of the Chenáb, the country once more rises, and abruptly changes from a wooded cultivable plain to the lifeless wilderness characteristic of the higher lands between the river valleys of the Punjab. Strips of cultivation

along the convergent streams enclose this sterile wedge, which runs like an intrusive spur of Sháhpur District down the centre of the Jech Doáb. Beyond the Jhelum, another singularly fertile belt fringes the river, extending a few miles inland, till it reaches the bank of the Sind Ságar *bár*, rising like a wall above the rich alluvial lowland. Only 28½ per cent. of the whole area is included within regularly defined villages; the remainder consists of wild and elevated plateaux, almost destitute of vegetation, or covered with coarse clumps of grass. An ancient water-course, now dry, crosses the north-eastern angle, and bears the name of the Nannánwa Canal. Fish are caught at Lalhera, in the extreme south, to supply the market of Múltán. Ravine-deer, wild pig, and hares occur in the less frequented parts of the lowlands; while water-fowl are plentiful during the season. Herds of wild horses are said to roam over the outskirts of the desert uplands. The *sajji* plant, which yields soda, grows abundantly in the high ground between the Chenáb and the Jhelum.

History.—The District of Jhang possesses unusual historical interest, from the presence within its borders of the ruins which crown the small rocky eminence of Sánglawála Tiba. This site has been identified by General Cunningham with the Sákala of the Bráhmans, the Ságal of Buddhism, and the Sangala of Alexander's historians. The hill occupies a position on the Gujránwála border, surrounded on two sides by a large swamp, formerly a lake of considerable depth. In the *Mahábhárata*, Sákala appears as the capital of the Mádras, whose memory still survives in the name of Mádra-des, which the surrounding country retains at the present day. Pleasant paths through the Pilu forest then led up to the lake and hill where the Aryan colonists had placed their stronghold. In Buddhist legend, Ságal once more occurs as the metropolis of King Kusa, against whom seven kings made war, to carry off his wife, Prabhávati; but the king, mounting an elephant, met them without the city, and shouted with so loud a voice that his cry resounded over all the earth, and the seven kings fled away in terror. The Hellenic historians inform us how Alexander turned aside from his projected march toward the Ganges, to attack the people of Sangala, who held out against him in the rear. He found the city strong both by art and nature, defended by brick walls and covered on two approaches by the lake. The Macedonian forces attacked and took an outpost on the low ridge of Mundapapura, after which they laid siege to the city, undermined the walls, and carried the position by assault. Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, who visited Sákala in 630 A.D., has given the topographical details which enable General Cunningham to effect the present identification with an unusual degree of certainty. The walls then lay in ruins, and a small inhabited town occupied the centre of the ancient city, whose

relics surrounded it on every side. It still contained a Buddhist monastery of 100 monks, and two topes (*stupas*), one of them erected by the famous Emperor Asoka. Sherkot, in the lowlands of the Chenáb, has also been identified, though less certainly, with a town of the Malli, attacked and taken by Alexander, and described at a later period by Hiouen Thsang as the capital of a considerable District. In modern times, the history of Jhang centres in the family of Siáls, who ruled over a large tract between Sháhpur and Múltán, with little dependence on the imperial court at Delhi, until they finally fell before the power of Ranjít Sinh. The Siáls of Jhang are Muhammadans of Rájput descent, whose ancestor, Rái Shankar of Dáranagar, emigrated early in the 13th century from the Gangetic Doáb to Jaunpur. His son, Siál, in 1243, left his adopted city for the Punjab, then overrun by the Mughal hordes. Such emigrations appear to have occurred frequently at the time, owing to the unsettled state of the lower Provinces. During his wanderings in search of a home, Siál fell in with the famous Musalmán saint Bába Faríd-ud-dín Shakarganj of Pák Pattan, whose eloquence converted him to the faith of Islám. He afterwards sojourned for a while at Siálkot, where he built a fort; but finally settled down and married at Sáhiwál, in Sháhpur District. It must be confessed, however, that his life and those of his descendants bear somewhat the character of eponymic myths. Mahpál, sixth in descent from Siál, founded the town of Mankera in 1380; and his great-grandson, Mal Khán, built Jhang Siál on the Chenáb in 1462. Four years later, he presented himself at Lahore, in obedience to a summons, and obtained the territory of Jhang as a hereditary possession, subject to a payment of tribute into the imperial treasury. His family continued to rule at Jhang, with the usual dynastic quarrels and massacres of Indian annals, till the beginning of the present century. Meanwhile, the Síkh power had arisen in the north, and Karam Sinh Dúla, a chief of the Bhangi confederacy, had conquered Chiniot in this District. In 1803, Ranjít Sinh marched against that fort and captured it, after which he turned towards Jhang, but was bought off by Ahmad Khán, the last of the Siál chieftains, on promise of a yearly tribute, amounting to £6000. Three years later, however, the Mahárájá again invaded Jhang with a large army, and captured the fort, after a desperate resistance. Ahmad Khán then fled to Múltán, and the Mahárájá farmed the territories of Jhang to Sardár Fateh Sinh. Shortly afterwards, Ahmad Khán returned with a force given him by Muzaffar Khán, Nawáb of Múltán, and recovered a large part of his previous dominions, which Ranjít Sinh suffered him to retain on payment of the former tribute, as he found himself too busy elsewhere to attack Jhang. After his successful attempt on Múltán in 1810, the Mahárájá took Ahmad Khán a prisoner to Lahore, as he suspected him of favouring his enemy,

Muzaffar Khán. He afterwards bestowed on him a *jágír*, which descended to his son, Ináyat Khán. On the death of the latter, his brother, Ismáil Khán, endeavoured to obtain succession to the *jágír*, but failed through the opposition of Ghuláb Sinh. In 1847, after the establishment of the British Agency at Lahore, the District came under the charge of our Government; and in 1848, Ismáil Khán rendered important services against the rebel chiefs, for which he received a small pension. During the Mutiny of 1857, the Siál leader again proved his loyalty by raising a force of cavalry and serving in person on the British side. His pension was afterwards increased, and he obtained the title of Khán Bahádur, with a small *jágír* for life.

Population.—The Census of 1855 returned the total population of the District, as then constituted, at 251,769 persons; but for purposes of comparison, it becomes necessary to add to these figures the inhabitants of various villages in Sháhpur and Muzaffargarh, since transferred to Jhang, amounting to 47,285 persons, who thus raise the total to 299,054. The Census of 1868 shows an increase of 48,973 persons, or 16·37 per cent. The last-named enumeration was taken over an area of 5712 square miles. It disclosed a total population of 348,027 persons, distributed among 1089 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 74,986 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced :—Persons per square mile, 60·95; villages or townships per square mile, 0·19; houses per square mile, 13·12; persons per village, 319; persons per house, 4·64. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 193,624; females, 154,403; proportion of males, 55·64 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 70,980; females, 57,660; total, 128,640, or 36·8 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, the District forms a strong centre for the faith of Islám. The Muhammadans at the date of the Census numbered 270,819, or 77·81 per cent.; while the Hindus amounted to only 57,297, or 16·46 per cent. The Síkhs were returned at 2994, and 'others' at 16,917, or 0·86 and 4·86 per cent. respectively. In the ethnical classification, Rájputs occupy the first place numerically, with 47,254 persons, chiefly Siáls and Bhattis. Aroras, a Hindu trading caste, numbered 39,495; Játs, 17,404; Sánsis, a gipsy race, with a religion and language of their own, 16,899; Kshattriyas, 13,266; Biluchis, 10,841; Sayyids, 5553; and Bráhmans, 5112. Only 3 towns contained a population exceeding 5000 persons—namely, JHANG, 9124; MAGHIANA, 10,525; and CHINIOT, 11,477. Panjábí and Múltání are the languages spoken in the District.

Agriculture.—The area under cultivation in 1873 amounted to 241,325 acres, out of an assessed total of 3,650,867 acres. The distinguishing feature of the District consists in the fact that no crops can anywhere be grown without irrigation. The best land is that which lies

beyond the immediate action of the rivers, and below the high bank of the *bár*. In this tract all the principal staples of the District can be raised by means of well-irrigation. The land exposed to the inundations produces more uncertain crops, as a rich deposit sometimes covers the previously sterile plain, while at other times villages, wells, and cultivated fields are carried away by the destructive flood. Rain crops are practically unknown. Wheat, barley, gram, and mustard form the staples of the spring harvest; while *china*, *joár*, maize, and cotton make up the chief items of the autumn crops. In 1872-73, wheat covered 143,764 acres; *joár*, 28,168 acres; barley, 8376 acres; and cotton, 16,795 acres. Agricultural knowledge remains in a very backward state, rotation of crops being absolutely unknown, and the use of manure but little practised. The village system and the theory of joint responsibility for the land revenue may be regarded as to a great extent an innovation of British rule. By far the greater number of villages are held on the tenure known as *bháyáchára*, though they cannot be entirely assimilated to any of the common Punjab types. The majority of tenants hold their land at will. Rents vary from 6s. to £3 per acre. Good irrigated wheat lands bring in £1, 14s., cotton lands from 12s. to £2, 4s. Prices of food-grains ruled as follows in 1873:—Wheat, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt.; barley and *joár*, 31 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 7d. per cwt.; maize, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is inconsiderable. Grain is imported from the banks of the Rávi and from Wazirábád in Gujránwála. Country cloth is manufactured at Jhang and Maghiána, and bought up by the Povindah merchants of Afghánistán. The District contains as many as 5766 looms, and the annual value of the cloth woven amounts to £41,721. The estimated value of the imports is £108,328, and that of the exports £65,864. Manufactures of leather and of gold and silver lace also exist. The chief road is that from Múltán to Wazirábád, passing Sherkot, Jhang, Maghiána, and Chiniot in this District. A bridge of boats is in course of construction (1875) across the united stream of the Jhelum and the Chenáb, just below their junction. Both rivers are navigable all the year round by the largest native craft.

Administration.—The total imperial revenue raised in the District in 1873 amounted to £49,302, of which sum the land tax contributed £42,115, or more than six-sevenths. Stamps formed the only other item of any importance. In addition to this sum, a Provincial and a local revenue were also raised, but no returns of these are available. Leases for grazing and for collecting *sajji* form considerable items of public income. The administrative staff usually comprises a Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner, and two extra-Assistant Com-

missioners, besides the usual fiscal, constabulary, and fiscal officers. In 1872, the regular police force consisted of a total of 427 officers and men, or, with the municipal and ferry police, 503; being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 11·35 square miles of area, and every 691 of the population. The total number of persons brought to trial for all offences committed in the District during the year 1871 amounted to 2654. The District jail at Maghiána contained in 1872 a total population of 866 prisoners, with a daily average of 319 inmates. Education was carried on during the same year by 32 Government or aided schools, and 123 indigenous schools, with an aggregate roll of 3696 pupils. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is divided into 3 *tahsíls* and 24 *parganás*. The 4 municipal towns of Jhang-Maghiána, Chiniot, Sherkot, and Ahmadpur had a total revenue in 1875-76 of £3555, or an average of 1s. 10d. per head of the population (38,783) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The District bears a good reputation for healthiness. Small-pox and fever are the most prevalent diseases. The total number of deaths recorded from all causes in 1872 amounted to 6083, or 17 per thousand. Of these, 3965, or 11·39 per thousand, were assigned to fever alone. Government charitable dispensaries have been established at Maghiána, Jhang, Sherkot, Chiniot, Ahmadpur, and Kot Isá Sháh. In 1872, they afforded relief to 19,708 persons, of whom 383 were in-patients. The annual rainfall in inches for the seven years ending 1872-73 was as follows:—1866-67, 7·2; 1867-68, 16·1; 1868-69, 14·5; 1869-70, 10·7; 1870-71, 5·4; 1871-72, 5·8; 1872-73, 10·6; average, 10 inches.

Jhang.—Central *tahsíl* of Jhang District, Punjab, comprising an irregular tract on either side of the river Chenáb. Lat. 30° 35′ to 31° 36′ N., and long. 71° 39′ to 72° 39′ E.

Jhang.—Municipal town in Jhang District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 16′ 16″ N., long. 72° 21′ 45″ E. Pop. (1868), 9124, consisting of 4568 Hindus, 4244 Muhammadans, 129 Síkhs, 12 Christians, and 171 'others.' The sister town of MAGHIANA, containing the civil station for the District, lies 3 miles south of Jhang, and has a population of 10,525 persons, giving a grand total for both of 19,649. They form together a single municipality, and may be regarded as practically one town; situated in lat. 31° 16′ 16″ N., and long. 72° 21′ 45″ E., about 3½ miles to the west of the present bed of the Chenáb, 10 and 13 miles respectively north-west of its junction with the Jhelum. Jhang itself lies on the lowland, a little apart from the regular lines of trade; and since the removal of the Government offices to Maghiána, has yielded its commerce and importance to its younger rival. Founded by Mal Khán, a Siál chieftain, in 1462, and long the capital of a Native Muhammadan State. (*See* JHANG DISTRICT.) Principal inhabitants, Siáls and Kshattriyas.

Manufacture of country cloth, bought up by the Povindah merchants of Afghánistán. Imports of grain from Wazirábád and Miánwáli. Municipal revenue of Jhang-Maghiána in 1875-76, £2482, or 2s. 2½d. per head of population (22,342) within municipal limits.

Jhángár. — Town in the Sehwan Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 1643 — Muhammadans, chiefly Sayyids and Rind Baluchis, 1101; Hindus, principally of the Baniya caste, 542.

Jhanidah.—Subdivision of Jessor District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 22′ 15″ to 23° 47′ N., long. 88° 57′ 33″ to 89° 24′ 45″ E.; area, 476 square miles; townships, 720; houses, 43,850; pop. (1872), 286,461, of whom 103,946 were Hindus, 178,931 Muhammadans, 52 Christians, and 3532 of other religions not specified. Average number of inhabitants per square mile, 602; villages per square mile, 1·51; houses per square mile, 92; inmates per house, 6·5; proportion of males, 48·9. This Subdivision contained in 1870-71, 1 magisterial and revenue court, 4 police stations, a regular police force of 55 men, with a village watch numbering 691; cost of Subdivisional administration returned at £1608, 12s. The formation of this Subdivision was due to the indigo riots in 1861.

Jhanidah.—Town in Jhanidah Subdivision, Jessor District, Bengal; situated in lat. 23° 32′ 50″ N., and long. 89° 13′ E., on the river Nabagangá, 28 miles north of Jessor. Large *bázár*, and trade in sugar, rice, and pepper; communication chiefly carried on by means of the river, which, however, is gradually silting up; a road connects the town with Chuádángá, a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway. A large tank near Jhanidah was formerly the scene of frequent robberies and outrages. A bi-weekly market is held near the *bázár*, at which the idol of Kálí, in the market, receives a handful of everything brought for sale. Pop. above 2000.

Jhanjhána.—Agricultural town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 30′ 55″ N., long. 77° 15′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 5116, consisting of 2929 Hindus and 2187 Muhammadans. Lies on the plain, between the Jumna river and canal, 30 miles west of Muzaffarnagar. Occupies the site of an old brick fort; canal distributary flows close to the town. Water-holes exist in the immediate neighbourhood, and during the rains the whole country for many miles is flooded. Fever, small-pox, and cholera may be regarded as endemic.

Jhanjhárpur.—Village in Darbhanga District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 15′ 50″ N., long. 86° 19′ 11″ E.; 14 miles south-east of Madhubaní. Famous for its brass utensils, particularly the *pánbattá* or box for holding betel-leaf, and the *gangájolí* or water-pot. Two *bázárs*; large grain market. Situated near the main road from Darbhanga to Purniah.

Temple of Rakalmála. Jhanjhárpur formerly belonged to a family of Rájputs. It is now the property of the Mahárájá of Darbhanga, and the appointed residence of the Rání on the occasions of her confinement. Pop. (1872), 3940.

Jhánsi.—A Division under a Commissioner in the North-Western Provinces, comprising the 3 Districts of JHANSI, JALAUN, and LALITPUR, each of which see separately. Situated between 24° 11′ and 26° 26′ N. lat., and between 78° 14′ and 79° 55′ E. long. The Division contains a large portion of the tract known as Bundelkhand. Area, 5067 square miles; pop. (1872), 934,934.

Jhánsi.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 3′ 45″ and 25° 48′ 45″ N. lat., and between 78° 21′ 15″ and 79° 27′ 30″ E. long.; with an area of 1567 square miles, and a population in 1872 of 317,826 persons. Jhánsi forms the central District in the Division of the same name. It is bounded on the north by the Gwalior and Samthar States; on the east by the river Dhasán; on the south by the District of Lálitpur and the Orchha State; and on the west by the Datiyá, Gwalior, and Khaniya Dáná States. The District is much intersected, and portions of it are insulated, by the surrounding Native States. The administrative headquarters are at the village of JHANSI NAOABAD, close to the native town of JHANSI, now belonging to Gwalior. The most populous town in the District is Mhow (Mau).

Physical Aspects.—Jhánsi forms a portion of the hill country of Bundelkhand, sloping down southward from the outliers of the Vindhyán range to the tributaries of the Jumna (Jamuná) on the north. The extreme south of the District is composed of long and narrow ridged hills, which run parallel with one another from south-west to north-east. Through the intervening valleys the rivers flow down impetuously over ledges of granite or quartz. The rocky crests lie bare and exposed, but the shoulders are covered with low underbrush, and the bases with considerable trees. Northward of the hilly region stretches an intermediate strip of broken county, dotted with isolated heights, and deeply excavated near the banks of the larger rivers by short water-courses which drain the surrounding tableland. Here the rocky granite chains gradually lose themselves in clusters of smaller hills, amongst which are situated a series of magnificent artificial lakes, partially surrounded by the overhanging heights, and enclosed on their open sides by embankments of solid masonry. Some of them belong to the same age as those in the District of HAMIRPUR, having been constructed about 900 years since by the Chandel Rájás of Mahoba; but others date back no further than the 17th or 18th century, and are the work of Bundela princes. The northern portion of Jhánsi consists of the level plain of Bundelkhand, distinguished for its deep

black soil, known as *már*, and admirably adapted for the cultivation of cotton. The District is intersected or bounded by three principal rivers—the Pahúj, the Betwa, and the Dhasán, all of which are liable to be flooded in the rainy season; and on these occasions Jhánsi is almost completely cut off from communication with the outer world. There are many minor streams, most of which are feeders of the Dhasán. The District is so intersected by projecting or detached portions of Native States, that it is impossible to reach the headquarters at Jhánsi Naoábád without passing through foreign territory. This intermixture of alien villages has been productive of great administrative difficulties, especially in years of famine.

History.—The Parihárs, a Rájput tribe, are pointed out by tradition as the earliest Aryan immigrants into Jhánsi, where they still possess 24 villages. But nothing is known with certainty as to the history of this District before the period of Chandel rule, about the 11th century of our era. (*See* HAMIRPUR.) To this epoch must be referred the artificial reservoirs and architectural remains of the hilly region. After the overthrow of the Mahoba dynasty, the Chandels were succeeded in this portion of their dominions by their servants the Khángars, who built the fort of Karár, now lying just outside the British border, on an intrusive spur of the Orchha State. About the 14th century, the Khángars in their turn fell before the first fierce irruption of the Bundelas, a spurious Rájput tribe, who poured down upon the plains from the southern mountains, and placed their earliest capital at Mhow. Thence they attacked and conquered the fortress of Karár, and gradually spread themselves over the whole region which now bears their name. The great Bundela leader, Rudra Pratáp, from whom most of the distinguished native families in Bundelkhand trace their descent, founded the city of Orchha, which thenceforth became the capital of his race. Under his descendants, the District long practically maintained its independence of the Musalmáns, though the Orchha Rájás from time to time made formal payments of tribute to the court of Delhi. In the early part of the 17th century, the Orchha State was governed by Bír Sinh Deo, who built the fort of Jhánsi. He incurred the heavy displeasure of Akbar, by the murder of Abul Fazl, the Emperor's favourite minister and historian, at the instigation of Prince Salím, afterwards known as the Emperor Jahángír. A force was accordingly sent against him in 1602, the country was ravaged and devastated, but Bír Sinh himself contrived to escape. On the accession of his patron, Salím, in 1605, he was naturally pardoned, and rose into great esteem. But when, on the death of that Emperor in 1627, Sháh Jahán mounted the throne, Bír Sinh revolted. His rebellion was unsuccessful; and although he was permitted to keep possession of his dominions, he never regained all his former power and inde-

pendence. During the troubled times which succeeded, Orchha was sometimes in the hands of the Musalmáns, and sometimes fell under the power of the Bundela chieftains, Champat Rái and his son Chhatar Sál. When, in 1707, the last-named national leader obtained from Bahádur Sháh a confirmation in the possessions which he had conquered, the present District of Jhánsi was included in the grant. But even after this nominal pacification, the Muhammadan *subahdárs* continued to make irruptions into the Bundela country; and in 1732, Chhatar Sál found it expedient to call in the aid of the Marhattás, who were then invading the Central Provinces under their first Peshwá, Bájí Ráo. The Marhattás, never slow to insinuate themselves where opportunity offered, came to his assistance with their accustomed promptitude, and were rewarded on the Rájá's death, in 1734, by a bequest of one-third of his dominions. The territory so granted included portions of the modern Division of Jhánsi, but not the existing District itself. In 1742, however, the Marhattás found a pretext for attacking the Orchha State, and annexing that amongst other territories. Their general founded the city of Jhánsi, and peopled it with the inhabitants of Orchha. The District remained under the power of the Peshwás for some thirty years, but after that period the Marhattá viceroys made themselves independent in all but name. Seo Ráo Bhao was *subahdár*, or governor, when the British first began to interest themselves in the affairs of Bundelkhand. By *sanad*, dated February 8, 1804, British protection was promised him; and this arrangement was confirmed by treaty in October 1806. Seo Ráo Bhao died in 1814, and was succeeded by his grandson, Rámchand Ráo. In June 1817, the Peshwá ceded to the East India Company his rights over Bundelkhand; and in November of the same year, the Government acknowledged the hereditary title of Rámchand Ráo and his descendants to all their existing possessions. In 1832, the title of *subahdár* was changed for that of Rájá. Rámchand Ráo proved a weak and inefficient administrator, his revenues fell considerably in amount, and his territories were overrun and plundered by the native tribes beyond the Pahúj. Much injury was inflicted upon the cultivators, who have scarcely yet recovered from their losses at this period. Rámchand Ráo died without issue in 1835. Four claimants appeared for his territories, and the British Government recognised his great-uncle, Raghunáth Ráo, the second son of Seo Ráo Bhao, as heir to the principality. Under his administration, the revenue fell again to one-fourth of the sum which it had produced even during the management of his predecessor. His extravagance and debauchery compelled him to mortgage part of his territories to the Gwalior and Orchha States. He died heavily in debt, and without legitimate issue, in 1836. Four claimants again presented themselves for the vacant suc-

cession, and a commission was appointed by the British Government to investigate their claims. Meanwhile, the Political Agent in Bundelkhand assumed the administration, in the interests of civil order. The decision of the commission was given in favour of Gangádhar Ráo, brother of the last Rájá, and sole surviving male descendant of Seo Ráo Bhao. As the new prince was of weak intellect, it was determined to carry on the administration by British agency, and to allow the Rájá a fixed pension, on the understanding that the administration should be restored to him as soon as the principality was relieved from the state of disorder into which it had fallen. A Superintendent was appointed, under whom the revenue immediately rose to double its previous amount. In 1842, the management was restored to Gangádhar Ráo, whose administration, judged by a native standard, proved fairly satisfactory. Though the assessments were high, they were impartially collected, remissions were granted in years of scarcity, and the Rájá himself was personally popular. Gangádhar Ráo died childless in 1853, and his territories lapsed to the British Government. The Jhánsi State, with Jaláun and Chanderi Districts, were then formed into a Superintendency, while a pension was granted to the Rání or widow of the late Rájá. The Rání, however, considered herself aggrieved, both because she was not allowed to adopt an heir, and because the slaughter of cattle was permitted in the Jhánsi territory. Reports were spread which excited the religious prejudices of the Hindus. The events of 1857 accordingly found Jhánsi ripe for rebellion. In May, it was known that the troops were disaffected; and on the 5th of June, a few men of the 12th Native Infantry seized the fort containing the treasure and magazine. Many European officers were shot the same day. The remainder, who had taken refuge in a fort, capitulated a few days after, and were massacred with their families to the number of 66 persons, in spite of a promise of protection sworn on the Koran and Ganges water. The Rání then attempted to seize the supreme authority; but the usual anarchic quarrels arose between the rebels, and the Orchha leaders laid siege to Jhánsi, and plundered the country mercilessly. Numbers of the cultivators were hopelessly impoverished at this time, and it will be long before the damage then inflicted can be repaired. On the 5th of April 1858, the fort and town were recovered by Sir Hugh Rose, who marched on to Kálpi without being able to leave a garrison at Jhánsi. After his departure, the rebellion broke out afresh, only the Gúrsarái chieftain in the north remaining faithful to the British cause. On the 11th August, a flying column under Colonel Liddell cleared out the rebels from Mhow; and, after a series of sharp contests with various guerilla leaders, the work of re-organization was fairly set on foot in November. The Rání herself had previously fled with Tántiá Topí, and finally fell in battle at the foot of the rock

fortress of Gwalior. Since that time, Jhánsi has remained a British District, and famines and floods alone have disturbed the prosperous course of the civil administration.

Population.—No District in the plains of the North-Western Provinces, with the exception of Lálitpur, is so sparsely inhabited as Jhánsi; and the population, though considerably increased since the introduction of British rule, has declined slightly under the pressure of famine in late years. The total number of inhabitants in 1865 was returned at 357,442; in 1872, it had fallen to 317,826, showing a decrease in eight years of 39,616 persons, or 11·08 per cent. The area at the latter date was computed at 1567 square miles, and the number of villages was returned as 607, the houses being reckoned as 72,795. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 203; villages per square mile, 0·4; houses per square mile, 46; persons per village, 524; persons per house, 4·3. The sparseness of the population must be set down to the numerous misfortunes which have befallen Jhánsi in recent times. Excessive taxation, depredations by the mutineers in 1857-58, the growth of *káns* grass, famine, floods, and epidemics caused thousands to emigrate, besides the direct loss of life. But even under these unfavourable conditions, the population has increased since the days of native rule. The estimates formed in 1832, gave a population of 286,000 for 2922 square miles, then included in Jhánsi. The jurisdiction has been reduced to 1567 square miles, and the population in 1872 had increased even in this smaller area to 317,826 persons. Classified according to sex, there were, in 1872 (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—males, 167,519; females, 150,216; percentage of males to total population, 52·7. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years (with the like omission)—males, 59,670; females, 49,149; total, 108,819, or 34·25 per cent. With regard to distinctions of caste, there are 37,304 Bráhmans, the most numerous class in the District except the Chamárs; and they hold 102 villages, being a greater number than any other body, except the Ahírs. The Rájputs number 17,324, and hold 66 villages. Their most numerous clan is that of the Bundelas, the old dominant race, who, however, like many others included in the above total, are not held to be of pure Rájput blood. The Banias, or trading classes, number 13,228. But the mass of the population is composed of Sudras and those classified as 'other castes' in the Census Report, who amount in the aggregate to 237,295 persons, or more than two-thirds of the total inhabitants. Amongst them, the Chamárs are the largest body, being returned at 39,739 persons; but they hold only one village. Next come the Káchhis, who number 28,117, and hold seven villages. The Korís are reckoned at 18,765, but hold no villages, being chiefly employed as weavers in the larger towns. The Ahírs, who

number 22,334, are the most important of the lower castes, owning as many as 107 villages. Other leading tribes are the Lodhís, with 23,570 persons and 68 villages; the Kurmís, with 12,107 persons and 44 villages; and the Káyasths, with 6626 persons and 12 villages. As regards religious distinctions, the District is essentially Hindu, and the practice of killing cattle for food is one of the grievances complained of under British rule. Hinduism is professed by 305,151 persons, or 96 per cent. of the inhabitants. There are 12,417 Musalmáns, or 4 per cent., who hold only 4 villages, and possess no social or political importance. Neither the Christians nor the Bráhma Samáj have formed any settlement in the District. There are 5 towns with a population exceeding 5000 — namely, MHOW, 16,428; RANIPUR, 6695; GURSARAI, 6368; BARWA SAGAR, 5815; and BHANDER, 5929. The number of agriculturists in 1872 was returned at 108,087; and of landowners, at 21,233.

Agriculture.—Jhánsi, in the nature of its soil, the character of its people, the poor means of irrigation, and the want of good communications, is perhaps worse off than any other District in the North-Western Provinces, except its still more unfortunate neighbour, Lálitpur. In the best seasons, its produce is only just sufficient to feed its scanty and scattered population, and droughts or floods expose it to the greatest hardships. Out of a total area of 1,002,734 acres, only 428,348 acres were under cultivation in 1866. The year is divided into the usual rain and cold weather seasons. The principal *kharíf* or rain crops are—*joár* (millet), which in 1866 occupied 135,612 acres; cotton, grown on 35,107 acres; and *bájra* (another millet), on 24,409 acres. There were also 17,034 acres under *tíl*, an oil-seed, and 14,788 under a kind of pulse known as *kodo*. The total area of the rain crops was 256,725 acres; of which 57,396 acres were devoted to fibres, dye-stuffs, and oil-seeds. The *rabí* or cold-weather crops covered an area of 163,623 acres, of which 4613 were cultivated with oil-seeds. The chief *rabí* products were—wheat, 104,205 acres; gram, 49,967; and barley, 2516. There were also about 14,000 acres employed in raising the *ál* dye, procured from the root of the Morinda citrifolia, a rain crop, which is only dug up every third year. It is commercially the most important product, and is grown on the best land. The destructive *káns* grass has proved as great a pest here as elsewhere in Bundelkhand. Irrigation is little practised. There are, indeed, some channels in connection with the artificial lakes before mentioned, but these are in a ruinous state, and water very little land in comparison with their original capacities. Most of them leak, and they require thorough renovation before they can be employed to any good purpose. Improvements, however, have been commenced, and will doubtless succeed in greatly benefiting the District. The larger half of the land is held by proprietors or tenants

having occupancy rights. The landowners themselves cultivate 41·8 per cent. of the tilled land; tenants paying by lump sum not liable to enhancement, 14·01 per cent.; ditto liable to enhancement, 13·6 per cent.; and tenants-at-will, 30·5 per cent. The native governments acknowledged no proprietary rights; and there have been great difficulties accordingly in settling what persons should be regarded as tenants and landowners respectively. The rates of rent vary from 2s. 11d. for the worst soils, to 9s. 4d. for the best. Wages have advanced about 100 per cent. of late years. The present rates are as follows:—First-class carpenters, 9d. to 1s. in towns, 7½d. in villages; second-class ditto, 3d. to 6d.; blacksmiths, 3d. to 7½d.; first-class masons, 4½d. to 6d.; first-class coolies, 3¾d.; second-class, 3d.; boys, 1⅞d. Prices in 1872 ruled as follows:—Wheat, 17 *sers* the rupee, or 6s. 7d. per cwt.; gram, 21½ *sers* the rupee, or 5s. 2½d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 20 *sers* the rupee, or 5s. 7¼d. per cwt.; *joár*, 21 *sers* the rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Jhánsi is specially exposed to blights, droughts, floods, hailstorms, epidemics, and their natural consequence, famine. Even in favourable years, the consumption of the District exceeds its production by one-fifth; and it is considered that scarcity may be feared every five years on an average. The famines of 1783, 1833, 1837, and 1847 were particularly severe. The famine of 1868-69 was also felt very heavily in Jhánsi. The autumn of 1868 had been a period of drought, during which the whole *kharíf* crop was destroyed; and it was succeeded by torrents of rain in the subsequent year, by which the *rabí* was reduced to half its usual quantity. In July 1869, the bridges and roads were broken down by floods, and the whole country rendered impassable. Through the failure of the crops and the cutting-off of communications, an absolute lack of food occurred. So long as the roads remained open, grain was imported in considerable quantities, under Government direction, from Cawnpore and Ságar; but after July 1869, the roads became useless, owing to the floods, and epidemics burst out among the starving people. Small-pox and sun-stroke carried off thousands of the enfeebled poor, while cholera and fever appeared with the rainy season. The number of deaths recorded rose from 3180 in 1868, to 20,331 in the succeeding year. Relief measures were early adopted, and poorhouses were opened at Jhánsi in September 1858, at Mhow-Ránípur in December, and at Barwá Ságar in February 1869. Thirteen famine works were also undertaken, in the shape of roads, bridges, and irrigation embankments. The daily average of persons relieved for thirteen months was 4494, of whom 2284 obtained gratuitous aid at poorhouses, and 2210 were employed on relief works. The total cost amounted to £15,032. The famine began to abate towards the end of 1869, but the District long continued to bear marks of distress. From 10 to 20 per cent. of land was thrown out of cultivation, partly

owing to the loss of 150,000 head of cattle—one-half the total stock—and partly to the spread of *káns* grass, induced by the floods. Famine rates are reached when the better grains sell at 10, and the poorer at 12, *sers* the rupee, or 11s. 2½d. and 9s. 4d. per cwt. respectively. The means of communication are insufficient, especially in that portion of the District which lies between the Betwa and the Dhasán, where absolute failure of supplies may be expected in years of drought or flood. The intermixture of villages belonging to Native States renders the organization of relief a task of great difficulty.

Commerce and Trade.—As the District is not able to supply its own wants in the matter of food-stuffs, it imports instead of exporting grain. In return, it gives the *ál* dye and cotton. There are no manufactures, except a little dyed cloth. A large transport trade, however, is conducted *viâ* Mhow between Central India and the Doáb. The District has no railway station within or adjoining its limits. The chief road is that from Jhánsi through Kálpi to Cawnpore, having a length within the District of 41 miles, well bridged and metalled. The other roads are not good, and are liable to be cut off in times of flood. The District contains no printing press, but there are two lithographic presses in the native city of Jhánsi, just outside the borders, where work is executed in Urdu and Hindí.

Administration. — In 1860, the revenue of Jhánsi amounted to £95,990, of which £77,146, or more than three-fourths, was contributed by the land tax. The expenditure at the same date reached the sum of £49,551, or little more than one-half the revenue. In 1870, the total receipts had fallen to £87,987, of which sum only £56,085 was contributed by the land tax. The decrease, however, is partly due to the cession of three *parganás* to Gwalior in 1861. At the same time, the expenditure in 1871 had increased to £59,112. The present assessments of land revenue are intentionally very light, in order that the country may have time to recover itself. The District is administered on the non-regulation system, under which civil, criminal, and fiscal functions are possessed by the same officer. Its affairs are managed by a Deputy Commissioner, an Assistant Commissioner, three extra-Assistant Commissioners, and four *tahsíldárs*. The Commissioner for the Jhánsi Division is also stationed at Jhánsi Naoábád. There are 6 magisterial and 15 civil courts. The regular police numbered, in 1871, 745 men, maintained at a cost of £10,233, of which sum £649 was paid from local sources. The village watchmen or *chaukidárs* numbered 704 men, at an annual cost of £2505. The whole machinery, therefore, for the protection of persons and property consisted of 1449 men, or 1 in every 219 inhabitants and every 1·08 square miles, at a cost of £12,738, or 9½d. per inhabitant. The total number of persons convicted of any offence in 1871 was 881,

or 1 in every 360 of the population. The immense majority of convictions are for theft and housebreaking. There is one jail in the District, the daily average number of prisoners in which was 234 in 1870, or 0·65 per cent. of the population. The cost per head amounted to £5, 16s. 4d., and the average earnings of each inmate to 17s. 6¼d. Education unfortunately shares in the general backwardness of Jhánsi. Instead of progressing, it actually retrograded during the ten years 1860 to 1870. In the first-named year, there were 173 schools in the District, with 3764 pupils, maintained at a cost of £957; in 1870, while the expenditure, chiefly borne by the State, had increased to £1247, the number of schools had declined to 110, and the pupils numbered only 2235. The District is divided into 4 fiscal divisions (*parganás*), containing 618 estates; average land revenue paid by each estate, £90, 15s. 0½d. The District contains 2 municipalities, Mhow and Jhánsi Naoábád. In 1875-76, their joint income amounted to £1785, and their expenditure to £1845. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 0⅛d. per head of their population. The headquarters station has a population of only 536, and it is unpleasantly close to the foreign city of Jhánsi, which contains 30,000 inhabitants. Negotiations have several times been commenced for such exchanges of territory with the neighbouring native principalities as would render this straggling District more compact and more easily administered, but hitherto they have met with little success.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Jhánsi, like that of Bundelkhand generally, is hot and very dry, owing to the want of trees or shade, and the radiation from bare rocks or arid wastes; but it is not considered unhealthy. The mean annual temperature was 80° F. in 1870, 79° in 1871, and 81·7° in 1872. The mean monthly temperature for the last-named year ran as follows:—January 63°, February 68°, March 83°, April 89°, May 96°, June 95°, July 84°, August 82°, September 83°, October 87°, November 85°, and December 66°. The annual rainfall for the ten years 1860-70 was, in 1860-61, 21·1 inches; in 1861-62, 31·7 inches; 1862-63, 25·3 inches; 1863-64, 35·6 inches; 1864-65, 23·1 inches; 1865-66, 31·5 inches; 1866-67, 34·3 inches; 1867-68, 45·1 inches; 1868-69 (the year of famine), 16·4 inches; and 1869-70, 47·2 inches; average, 31·1. The population are habitually under-fed, and they consequently succumb readily to slight diseases. The total number of deaths recorded in 1871 was 6843, or 19·12 per thousand of the whole population; and of these, 4517, or 12·62 per thousand, were assigned to fevers.

Jhánsi. — Western *tahsíl* of Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a narrow hilly strip of land along the west bank of the river Betwa, much cut up by intrusive or isolated portions of adjacent Native States. Area, 379 square miles, of which 186 are

cultivated; pop. (1872), 72,861 persons; land revenue, £8635; total Government revenue, £9715; rental paid by cultivators, £17,359; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 8½d.

Jhánsi.—Town and fort in Gwalior State, Central India. Lat. 25° 27′ 30″ N., long. 78° 37′ E.; estimated population, 30,000 persons. Lies on the Agra and Ságar road, amongst tanks and groves, close to the border, and overlooking the British Station of JHANSI NAOABAD. A stone-built fort, which crowns a neighbouring rock, commands the town, as well as the British outpost. Founded by Bír Sinh Deo, Rájá of ORCHHA, in the reign of Jahángír. In 1744, Náru Sankar, a Marhattá leader, chose the town as his headquarters, enlarged the fort, and encouraged surrounding villagers to populate the site. Jhánsi soon grew to be a flourishing city, the capital of a considerable State. It lapsed into the hands of the British, with the remaining estates of Gangádhar Ráo, in 1853. (*See* JHANSI DISTRICT.) During the Mutiny, his widow, the Rání of Jhánsi, fomented the insurrection of the troops, who murdered all the Europeans in the station, besieged the fort, and massacred its defenders after a capitulation on terms of preserving their lives. In 1858, Sir Hugh Rose (Lord Strathnairn) re-took the fort and town on 5th April. In 1861, the town, fort, and surrounding territory beyond the Pahúj were handed over to Gwalior State. The position is naturally strong, but the fortifications have not been repaired, and exhibit signs of decay. The city lies low, on the banks of an extensive tank or lake, the Lachmí Tál. Well-built brick houses occupy the chief streets, which still retain some relics of British rule in their gas-lamps and wide roadways. A wall with nine gateways surrounds the city, and several handsome temples stand upon the brink of the Lachmí Tál.

Jhánsi Naoábád.—Village and administrative headquarters of Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 27′ 30″ N., long. 78° 37′ E.; pop. (1872), 536. Lies at the extreme western limit of the District, close under the walls of Jhánsi town, which is now included within the Native State of Gwalior. The fort, also belonging to Gwalior, overlooks and commands the civil station and military cantonment. Jhánsi Naoábád stands in the midst of a wild and rocky country, and is cut off from communication with other British posts during seasons of flood on the Betwa. In the summer months, the heat is intense, the thermometer often standing at 108° in the shade up to 6 P.M. Previous to the cession of *parganás* Pachor, Karera, and part of Jhánsi to Gwalior in 1861, the headquarters occupied a central position; but they now stand quite at one side of the present District. Lines exist in the cantonment for European and native troops. The civil station is a straggling village, consisting of the residences of the officials, together with court-houses, *tahsílí*, police station, dispensary,

schools, and post office. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £111; from taxes, £49, or 7⅜d. per head of population (1596) within municipal limits.

Jhariá.—Coal-field in Mánbhúm District, Bengal, situated in the *parganá* of the same name, a few miles S. and S.E. of Párasnáth Hill, Bengal. The following notice is extracted from a paper by Mr. F. Hughes, published in vol. v. of the *Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India*:—The field commences at a distance of about 170 miles from Calcutta, nearly south of the village and station of Gobíndpur on the Grand Trunk Road, and extends east and west for about 18 miles, its greatest breadth, in a line north and south, being about 10 miles. The general truth, that geological structure mainly determines the physical appearance of a country, is admirably illustrated and borne out in the present instance, the configuration of the surface of the ground presenting the same uniform type of aspect which is common in areas composed of coal-bearing rocks, and resembling in almost every detail the appearances exhibited by the Rániganj field. The coal area generally is flat, and nowhere rises into undulating scenery. There is scarcely a single elevation worthy of the name of a hill; only a few low ridges and escarpments, principally along the eastern and northern boundaries of the field, where the hard grits and sandstones of the lower, or Barákhar, division of the Dámodar series crop out. The excellence of the coal in the Rániganj group of the Rániganj field is well known; but in the Jhariá field, although there are many seams in the upper series superior to some in the Barákhars, the finest coal and the freest from ash occurs in the latter. In the Karhabárí field, 28 to 30 miles north of the Jhariá field, much of the coal there, exclusively of Barákhar age, is superior to that of other districts, some of it yielding on assay as small an amount of ash as 2·5 and 4 per cent. Coking coal, as far as experiments have yet been made, is found only there; and the evidence both in that and the present field tends to show that, whatever the average superiority of the coal in the Rániganj group over those of the Barákhars may be, the best quality of coal is found amongst the latter. In making a comparison of the economic values of the two series in this field, it must be remembered that, in addition to the comparative size of the seams, their freedom from partings, and their constancy, the question of the amount of dip enters largely into the subject. In India, where appliances for working collieries are necessarily limited, and human labour is, in many cases, the only power available, a slight increase in the angle of inclination would necessitate such an addition to the expenditure, owing to the greater depth from which the water would have to be pumped out and the coal raised, that whereas a seam dipping at 12° and 16° might profitably be worked, one inclined at 20° or even 18° would have to be abandoned, unless

its superior quality enabled it to fetch a higher price in the market. Bearing this in mind, then, it is evident from what has been stated in this report that seams in the Barákhar group have the great advantage over those in the Ráníganj series of dipping at much smaller angles, thus affording greater facilities for being worked. Indeed, the inclination throughout the Ráníganj group is so high, that its economic value may be set down as being nearly *nil* until the seams of the Barákhar group shall have been exhausted.

Jharia Garkhari.—State, Khandesh, Bombay.—*See* DANG STATES.

Jhelum (*Jhílam*).—River in the Punjab; the most westerly of the five streams from which the Province derives its name. It is also known as the Bihet or Bitasta, corruptions of its Sanskrit name *Vitasta*, which Alexander's historians Græcized into Hydaspes, but Ptolemy more correctly as Bidaspes. The Jhelum rises in Kashmír State, among the mountains forming the north-eastern boundary of the valley, and, after flowing in a south-westerly course, forms a junction with the streams which have their origin in the Pír Panjál range. It then passes through the picturesque string of lakes in the neighbourhood of Srínagar or Kashmír city, and flows thenceforth above the level of the lower valley, being confined by high banks like those of the Po. Before entering the Walar Lake, it received the waters of a considerable tributary, the Sind, which rises in the northern mountains. The united stream then pours through the snow-clad Pír Panjál range by the narrow Pass of Baramula, which forms an outlet for the entire basin of the Kashmír valley. A vast lake at one time probably filled the whole of this great central hollow in the Himálayan system; but the outlet has been gradually worn down by the escaping flood, till only the lowest portion of the valley now remains covered with water. The distance from the source to the lower mouth of the Baramula Pass may be estimated at about 130 miles, of which 70 are navigable. The river has a breadth of 420 feet at Baramula. At Muzaffarábád, just before entering British territory, the Jhelum receives the Kishn Ganga, a river of at least equal length, which rises in Bultistán or Little Thibet, and drains an extensive valley among the Northern Himálayas. It next forms the boundary between the Kashmír State and the British Districts of Hazára and Ráwal Pindi, flowing in a narrow rocky bed, shut in by mountains on either side. Numerous rapids here render navigation impossible, though large quantities of timber are floated down from Kashmír. A handsome suspension bridge at Kohála in Hazára conveys the Kashmír road across the river. Below Dangalli, 40 miles east of Ráwal Pindi, the Jhelum becomes navigable. Passing into Jhelum District, it skirts the outlying spurs of the Salt Range, and finally debouches upon the plains a little above the town of Jhelum, about 250 miles from its source. Below Jhelum, inundation of the lowlands begins to be possible,

and low sandy islands stud the wide bed of the stream. After a south-westerly course of more than 100 miles, during which the river divides the District of Jhelum from those of Gujrát and Sháhpur, it enters the latter District entirely, and trends thenceforth more directly southward. The width in this portion of its course averages 800 yards in flood, dwindling down during the winter months to less than half that size. Sudden freshets occur after heavy rains, and cause frequent inundations over the lowlands, greatly increasing the productive power of the soil. The Jhelum next enters the District of Jhang, where it preserves the same general characteristics, but with a wider valley, bounded by the high uplands known as the *bár*. It finally joins the Chenáb (Chináb) at Timmu, in lat. 31° 11′ N., long. 72° 12′ E., 10 miles to the south of Maghiána, after a total course of not less than 450 miles, of which about 200 lie within British territory. The current in the plains has an average rate of 4 miles per hour. The wedge of land between the Jhelum and the Chenáb is known as the Jech Doáb; while the tract stretching westward to the Indus bears the name of the Sind Ságar (Saugor) Doáb. The principal towns upon the Jhelum are Kashmír or Srínagar (situated on one of its lacustrine expansions), Jhelum, Pind Dádan Khán, Bherá, Miáni, and Sháhpur. According to General Cunningham, the point where Alexander crossed the Hydaspes may be identified with Jalálpur in Jhelum District; while nearly opposite, on the Gujrát bank, stands the modern battle-field of Chiliánwála. Bridges of boats cross the river at Jhelum and Pind Dádan Khán, and a third is now (1875) in course of construction just below its junction with the Chenáb. The permanent railway bridge of the Northern Punjab State Line will also cross at the town of Jhelum. For further particulars, see HAZARA, RAWAL PINDI, JHELUM, GUJRAT, SHAHPUR, and JHANG DISTRICTS, and KASHMIR STATE.

Jhelum (*Jhilam*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab (Panjáb), lying between 32° 26′ and 33° 15′ N. lat., and between 71° 51′ and 73° 50′ E. long.; with an area of 3910 square miles, and a population in 1868 of 500,988 persons. Jhelum is a District in the Ráwal Pindi Division. It is bounded on the north by Ráwal Pindi; on the east by the river Jhelum; on the south by Sháhpur; and on the west by Bannu. The administrative headquarters are at the town of the same name, but PIND DADAN KHAN is the chief centre of population and commerce in the District.

Physical Aspects.—Jhelum forms the south-eastern portion of that rugged Himálayan spur which extends between the Indus and the Jhelum river into the borders of the Sind Ságar (Saugor) Doáb. Although its surface is not so wild as the mountain region of Ráwal Pindi, it yet presents a general appearance of great beauty and sublimity, relieved in places by smiling patches of cultivated valley. The

backbone of the District is formed by the Salt Range, a treble line of parallel hills, mainly composed of red sandstone and carboniferous rocks, running in three long forks from east to west throughout its whole breadth. At their foot lies a small strip of level soil, stretching along the banks of the Jhelum, and thickly dotted with prosperous villages, which receive and detain the fertilizing waters from the lower slopes. Above this favoured tract, the Salt Range rises in bold and striking precipices, broken by gorges of dull russet sandstone and grey gypsum, which contrast finely with the brilliant redness of the superficial soil. The latter peculiarity marks the presence of salt, from which the range derives its name, and which is mined in enormous quantities, under Government supervision, along its sides. The gorges are clothed with green brushwood, and traversed by trickling streams, at first pure and fresh, but soon impregnated with the saline matter over which they flow, and thus rendered worse than useless for purposes of irrigation. Between the lines of hills lies a picturesque tableland, in which the beautiful little lake of Kallar Kahár nestles amongst the minor ridges —at one end a mimic dead sea, surrounded by bare and rocky hills, its banks encrusted with salt, and devoid of life or vegetation; at the other, a glistening lake, crowned by wooded heights, and alive with myriads of wildfowl. North of the Salt Range, again, the country extends upward in an elevated plateau, diversified by countless ravines and fissures, until it loses itself in the tangled masses of the Ráwal Pindi Mountains. In this rugged tract, cultivation is rare and difficult, the soil being choked with saline matter, and the villagers dependent for their water supply upon artificial ponds, which often dry up in unfavourable seasons. The drainage of the District is determined by a low central watershed, running north and south, at right angles to the Salt Range. The waters of the western portion find their way into the Sohán, and finally into the Indus; those of the opposite slope collect into small torrents, and empty themselves into the Jhelum, which skirts the District for 100 miles on its eastern edge. This river is navigable for some distance above the town of Jhelum for the flat-bottomed craft of the country.

History.—The early annals of Jhelum present more points of interest than its records in modern times, since it can claim a mention both in the semi-mythical geography of the *Mahábhárata* and in the more veracious pages of Alexander's historians. Hindu tradition represents the Salt Range as the refuge of the Pándavas during the period of their exile; and every salient point in its scenery is connected with some legend of the national heroes. On the other hand, modern research has decided that the conflict between Alexander and Porus took place at some point within the present District; though the exact spot at which the Macedonian king effected the passage of the Jhelum (or Hydaspes) has been hotly disputed. General Cunningham is probably

correct in supposing that the real site of the crossing was at Jalálpur, which he identifies with the city of Bukephala; and that the battle with Porus—a Greek corruption of the name Purusha—took place at Mong, on the Gujrát side, close to the field of Chiliánwála. But when the brief light cast upon the District by Arrian and Curtius has been withdrawn, we have little information with reference to its condition, until the Musalmán conquest brought back literature and history to Upper India. The Janjúahs and Játs, who now hold the Salt Range and the northern plateau respectively, appear to have been the earliest inhabitants. The former are doubtless pure Rájputs, while the Játs are perhaps their degenerate descendants. The Ghakkars seem to represent an early wave of conquest from the east, and they still inhabit the whole eastern slope of the District; while the Awáns, who now cluster in the western plain, are apparently later invaders from the opposite quarter. The Ghakkars were the dominant race at the period of the first Muhammadan incursions; and they long continued to retain their independence both in Jhelum itself and in the neighbouring District of RAWAL PINDI, where the history of the tribe will be found more fully traced. During the flourishing period of the Mughal dynasty, the Ghakkar chieftains were among the most prosperous and loyal vassals of the house of Báber. But after the collapse of the Delhi empire, Jhelum fell, like its neighbours, under the sway of the Síkhs. In 1765, Gújar Sinh defeated the last independent Ghakkar prince, and reduced the wild mountaineers of the Salt Range and the Murree (Marri) Hills to subjection. His son succeeded to his dominions, until 1810, when he fell before the irresistible power of Ranjít Sinh. Under the Lahore Government, the dominant classes of Jhelum suffered much from fiscal exactions, and the Janjúah, Ghakkar, and Awán families gradually lost their landed estates, which passed into the hands of their Ját dependants. The feudal power declined and slowly died out, so that at the present time hardly any of the older chieftains survive, while their modern representatives hold no higher posts than that of village head-men. In 1849, the District passed, with the rest of the Síkh territories, into the power of the British. Ranjít Sinh, however, had so thoroughly subjugated the wild mountain tribes who inhabited the District, that little difficulty was experienced in reducing it to working order; and the subsequent history of Jhelum has been purely fiscal and administrative. The country is still studded with interesting relics of antiquity, amongst which the most noticeable are the ruined temples of Katás, built about the 8th or 9th century of our era, and perhaps of Buddhist origin. Other religious ruins exist at Malot and Siva-Ganga; while the ancient forts of Rohtás, Girjhak, and Kusák, standing on precipitous rocks in the Salt Range, are of deep interest for the military historian. Indeed, the position of Jhelum on the great north-western highway, by which

so many conquerors have entered India, from the Greek to the Mughal, has necessarily made it a land of fortresses and guarded defiles, and has turned its people into hereditary warriors.

Population.—The Census of 1855 was the first enumeration of the inhabitants, and it disclosed a total population of 429,420 persons. In 1868, while the area remained practically identical, the number of inhabitants had increased to 500,988, showing a total gain, for the thirteen years, of 71,568 persons, or 16·65 per cent. The District then contained 3910 square miles, and was divided between 998 villages or townships, with an aggregate of 113,010 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 128; villages or townships per square mile, 0·25; persons per village, 502; houses per square mile, 28·65; persons per house, 4·43. The increase of density since 1855 amounted to 18·28 persons per square mile. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 264,690; females, 236,298; proportion of males, 52·84 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 103,288; females, 88,575; total children, 191,863, or 38·25 per cent. In religion, Jhelum is a stronghold of Islám, as many as 434,157 persons, or 86·66 per cent., being returned as Musalmáns. The Hindus number only 49,111, or 9·80 per cent. The conquering Síkhs have left few traces of their supremacy in the composition of the people, as they now number no more than 13,865, or 2·77 per cent., leaving 3855 persons unclassified as 'others.' With reference to ethnical divisions, the chief Hindu tribes are the Bráhmans, Kshattriyas, and Aroras. The former caste numbers 9023, subdivided with the usual nicety into minor branches, none of which will eat or intermarry with one another. The Kshattriyas (37,211) are the traders and money-lenders of Jhelum, replacing the Banias throughout the Sind Ságar Doáb. The Aroras (8637) are a simple agricultural tribe. Amongst Muhammadans, the Játs claim first notice, both by their numbers (76,202) and their agricultural importance. They hold the whole central region to the north and south of the Salt Range, the hills themselves being the home of the Janjúahs. The general reputation for industry which they possess elsewhere follows them here; and they proved loyal during the events of 1857. The Awáns rank second in numerical order with 76,057 persons, the tribe being almost peculiar to this District and Ráwal Pindi. A romantic interest is thrown around them by the conjecture that they represent the descendants of Alexander's army; though they themselves put forward a still more apocryphal genealogy from the son-in-law of the Prophet. The Gújars (15,598), who farther south form a pastoral tribe with a bad reputation for cattle-lifting, are here a body of thriving and honest agriculturists, with a fine manly physique, and considerable landed possessions around the town of Jhelum. The Kashmíris are returned at 10,851; large

numbers of them arrive every winter in search of harvest work, and return home when the summer sets in. The other principal tribes are the Sayyids (13,296), Ghakkars (10,073), Janjúahs (7299), and Bhattis (6419). The Khokars, though numerically unimportant, possess great social distinction. One of their ancestors founded the town of Pind Dádan Khán, which he called after his own name, and has become the chief centre of the salt trade. The family lost most of their possessions in 1849, but has since been permitted to regain some part of its former property. As regards occupation, 302,594 persons were returned as agriculturists, and 198,394 as otherwise employed. There were 5 towns in 1868 with a population exceeding 5000—namely, PIND DADAN KHAN, 15,740; CHAKWAL, 5767; TALLAGANG, 5675; LAWA, 5256; and JHELUM, 5148. The urban population accordingly amounted to 37,586, or 9·5 per cent. of the District total. Pind Dádan Khán is an important emporium for the surrounding neighbourhood. The language in common use is Panjábí.

Agriculture.—The total cultivated area of Jhelum is returned at 763,845 acres, against 1,738,445 acres of uncultivated land. Of the latter area, only 258,825 acres are capable of tillage. The staple crops are wheat in the spring harvest, and *bájra* in the autumn. The area under each, in 1871-72, was 325,129 acres of the former and 180,425 of the latter. The other agricultural products are cereals and oil-seeds. Cotton was largely grown during the American war, but since the decline in prices the villagers have returned to their more familiar crops, only 17,295 acres of this staple being planted in 1871-72. The common coarse vegetables of India are abundant, though fruits and European garden-plants have found little favour as yet. There is no extensive system of irrigation in Jhelum, but 71,460 acres are watered by private enterprise. Wells are used in the fertile strip between the Salt Range and the river, and among the ravines; in many cases each well supplies only a very few acres, but these are plentifully manured and tilled like a garden, so as to produce a perpetual succession of sub-tropical vegetables and fruit throughout the year. In the fissured tableland to the north of the Salt Range, irrigation is more commonly practised by damming up the ravines, so as to retain the water and at the same time procure a rich deposit of sediment. The construction of these dams often demands both capital and energy. The largest are relics of a time when the District was in the hands of great landowners; but the security of British rule has induced the people themselves to turn their attention once more to similar works, and many new ones have lately been undertaken, with most profitable results. The average out-turn of crops per acre is returned as follows:—Wheat, 840 lbs.; inferior grains, 765 lbs.; cotton, 129 lbs.; oil-seeds, 360 lbs. The condition of the peasantry is on the whole prosperous. Debt is comparatively rare; and the chief

cause of poverty, where it exists, is the excessive subdivision of the soil. In former years, although primogeniture was unknown, many of the leading families contrived to keep their estates undivided by the simple method of fighting amongst themselves until only a single representative was left. Under the restrictive regulations of British rule, constant distribution of property amongst the surviving heirs is rapidly reducing the richer houses to the level of their neighbours. The ancient communal type of village tenure has been generally replaced by the system known as *bháyáchára*, under which the rights and liabilities of each shareholder are determined, not by ancestral custom, but by the amount of land which he possesses. Some of the villages here are much larger than in the average of Indian Districts, a single one containing as many (in an extreme case) as 90,000 acres; and their great size gives a social importance to their head-men which is unknown amongst the peasantry elsewhere. The land is almost equally divided between tenants-at-will and those with rights of occupancy. Rents vary with the nature of the crop for which the soil is suited. The highest rate is that for opium lands, which bring in from £2 to £3, 10s. per acre. Other crops rule as follows:—Wheat, from 14s. to £1, 6s. per acre, irrigated—from 12s. to £1, unirrigated; inferior grains, from 10s. to £1, irrigated—from 6s. to 12s., unirrigated; cotton, from 14s. to £1, 10s.; rice, from 16s. to £1, 12s. Wages are chiefly paid in kind. In a good harvest, labourers earn as much as 6d. per diem. Prices were returned as follows in January 1871:—Wheat, 16 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. per cwt.; barley, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10⅝d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of Jhelum is chiefly concentrated in the town of Pind Dádan Khán. The exports include—salt, for the south; silk and cotton goods, for the wilder country to the north and west; with brass and copper ware for the whole neighbourhood. The imports are English piece-goods and metal from Amritsar and Múltán (Mooltan), woollen fabrics from Kashmír, and Central Asiatic stuffs from Pesháwar. The town of Jhelum itself has also a considerable trade both within and without the Punjab. Salt is procured in immense quantities from the mines in the central range, which are now worked under Government supervision, and managed by a duly qualified engineer. The net revenue from this source amounted in 1871-72 to the sum of £362,193. A quarter of a million of tons per annum can be turned out if necessary. Gypsum is also found in the same range; and an inferior lignite exists in the oolitic and tertiary beds, but the coal is of poor quality, and has not yet been mined to advantage. The principal means of communication is the Grand Trunk Road, from Lahore to Pesháwar, which passes through the District from north to south, traversing a wild and tortuous country, and heavily taxing the

skill of the engineers. It is the only metalled line in Jhelum, and is 30 miles in length within the District; but there are 963 miles of unmetalled road, forming a complete network of intercommunication. The Northern State Railway will follow the same general route as the Grand Trunk Road, only avoiding the steeper gradients. The river Jhelum is navigable for 85 miles along the eastern frontier; and a line of telegraph runs by the side of the trunk road. Two great religious fairs, the one Hindu and the other Muhammadan, take place at Katás and at Choya Sáidan Sháh respectively, on the 9th of April and two following days. As many as 50,000 pilgrims are estimated to be present at each festival.

Administration.—The ordinary administrative staff of Jhelum consists of 1 Deputy Commissioner, 2 Assistant and 1 extra-Assistant Commissioners, and 4 *tahsíldárs*, with their deputies. The total revenue (in which the profits of the salt mines are not included) amounted in 1872-73 to £70,299, of which sum £59,766 was derived from the land tax. The other principal items are stamps and local rates. The incidence of the land revenue is unusually light. The imperial police consisted in 1873 of 425 men of all ranks, besides a municipal force of 97 constables and 5 special punitive policemen. The whole machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 527 men, being an average of 1 constable to every 950 of the population and every 7·4 square miles. The total number of persons brought to trial for all offences, great or small, in 1872, amounted to 3727, being at the rate of 7·43 per thousand of the population. The District jail at Jhelum contained an average daily population in 1872 of 275 prisoners. Education has made great strides of late years. In 1872-73, the roll of children under instruction showed a total of 8784, or more than double the whole number of persons who could read and write in 1868. During the same year, £1078 was expended from public funds for educational purposes. There were 18 girls' schools in the District, with a roll of 678 pupils, founded by the benevolent exertions of Bedi Khem Sinh, a native gentleman who has greatly interested himself in female education. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 4 *tahsíls* and 10 *parganás*, containing an aggregate of 939 estates, owned by 49,866 registered proprietors or coparceners; average land revenue from each estate, £74, 17s. 3¾d.; from each proprietor, £1, 8s. 2¼d. Municipalities are established at Jhelum, Pind Dádan Khán, and Chakwál; and a municipal income is also realized at Tallagang, Ahmadábád, Kalla, and Rohtás. Their united revenue for the year 1871-72 amounted to £4080, being at the average rate of 1s. 2½d. per head of population.

Sanitary Aspects.—Jhelum is, on the whole, a healthy District, though the miners of the Salt Range are subject to several distressing

complaints (including fever, ophthalmia, and pulmonary diseases), and are, generally speaking, a sickly-looking and feeble community. Goître is not uncommon, and guinea-worm causes much trouble on the northern plateau. The chief endemic disease is fever, which settles principally in the plain country around Pind Dádan Khán. The small-pox mortality is also unusually high. The total number of deaths recorded was 15,465 in 1870, 14,318 in 1871, and 14,772 in 1872; being at the rate of 31, 28, and 29 per thousand of the population respectively. Of these deaths, the proportion due to fever in the three years was 19·39, 12·84, and 19·36 per thousand respectively; while the ratio in the case of small-pox was 2·94, 6·99, and 0·46 per thousand. No observations are available with reference to the temperature of the District. The annual rainfall is returned as follows:—29·7 inches in 1866-67, 21·5 inches in 1867-68, 18·5 inches in 1868-69, 11·1 inches in 1869-70, 20·7 inches in 1870-71, and 16·2 inches in 1871-72; average for six years, 19·6 inches.

Jhelum (*Jhílam*).—Eastern *tahsíl* of Jhelum District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 18′ to 33° 15′ N., long. 73° 9′ to 73° 50′ E.

Jhelum (*Jhílam*).—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Jhelum District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 55′ 26″ N., long. 73° 46′ 36″ E.; pop. (1868), 5148, consisting of 1858 Hindus, 2831 Muhammadans, 442 Síkhs, 3 Christians, and 14 'others.' Situated on the northern bank of the Jhelum river. The native town is small, and of no particular importance; but its commerce has grown considerably since the establishment of the civil and military stations. Its origin is quite modern, the old town having stood on the opposite bank; and the houses consist for the most part of mud huts. Good reputation for boat-building. Bridge on the Northern Punjab State Railway. The civil lines and cantonments lie about a mile north of the town, and contain the court-house, police station, treasury, jail, and post office. Church and staging bungalow. Quarters for one Native regiment. Dispensary in the native town. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £1975, or 4s. 11½d. per head of pop. (7956) within municipal limits.

Jhind.—Native State in the Punjab.—*See* JIND.

Jhinjhuwára.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 17 villages, with 9 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £8000; and tribute of £1100 is paid to the British Government.

Jhirak.—Subdivision and town, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. —*See* JERRUCK.

Jhiri.—River of Assam, which rises in lat. 25° 16′ N., long. 93° 24′ E., amid the Baráil Hills, and flows south into the Barák, in lat. 24° 43′ N., long. 93° 7′ E., forming for a considerable distance the boundary between Cáchár District on the west, and the independent State of

Manipur. It runs in a narrow valley, shut in between two steep spurs of the Baráil range.

Jhúsi.—Village in Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, opposite the city of Allahábád, on the left bank of the Ganges. A ferry affords communication with the city. Lat. 25° 26′ N., long. 81° 58′ E.

Jiá Dhaneswari.—River in Darrang District, Assam; which rises beyond the frontier amid the Aka Hills, and flows south into the Brahmaputra. It is navigable throughout the year for native boats of 4 tons burthen.

Jiáganj.—Town in Murshidábád District, Bengal, on the left bank of the Bhágirathi. Lat. 24° 14′ 30″ N., long. 88° 18′ 31″ E.; 3 miles above Murshidábád city, and opposite Azímganj railway station. In 1857, the revenue surveyor stated that this town carried on a large trade in cotton, saltpetre, sugar, rice, and silk. According to the registration returns of 1876-77, the total imports were valued at £123,000, chiefly salt, oil-seeds, tobacco, and *ghí*; the principal exports were piece-goods and rice.

Jigni.—One of the petty States in the Bundelkhand Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. It is situated south of the Betwa, at its confluence with the Dhasán river to the north-west of Hamírpur District. The State, at the time of the British occupation of Bundelkhand, consisted of 14 villages, which were attached in consequence of contumacy, but eventually 6 villages were restored in 1810. The present Ráo Jágírdár is named Lakshman Sinh, a Hindu Bundela. He holds a *sanad* of adoption. The area of the State is 17 square miles, the population about 4000, and the revenue about £1400. There is a military force of about 57 infantry. Jigni town is situated in lat. 25° 44′ N., long. 79° 27′ E.

Jind.—One of the Native States situated to the east of the Sutlej (Satlaj) river, under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab. It consists of three or four isolated tracts. The town of Jind is situated in lat. 29° 19′ N., and long. 76° 23′ E. The principality was founded in 1763, and the chief was recognised as Rájá by the Emperor of Delhi in 1768. The Rájás of Jind have always been steady adherents of the British Government. Among the foremost and most sincere of those who proffered their allegiance after the overthrow of the Marhattás was Bágh Sinh of Jind; and the good offices of this chief were not unimportant in the negotiations which followed the advance of Lord Lake in pursuit of Holkar to the banks of the Beas. In recognition of these services, Lord Lake confirmed to the Rájá the grants of land he held under the Emperors of Delhi, and under Sindhia. After the Sutlej campaign, the Governor-General bestowed a grant of land of about £300 a year in value on the Rájá of Jind, as a mark of satisfaction with his conduct. In 1857,

Swarúp Sinh, then Rájá, was the first to march against the mutineers at Delhi. His troops acted as the vanguard of the army, and he remained in the British camp until the reoccupation of the city, and a portion of his troops took part in the assault. For these services he received a grant of additional territory, yielding £11,681 per annum, on condition of fidelity and political and military service in time of difficulty and danger. The present Rájá, Raghbír Sinh, G.C.S.I., is a Síkh of the Sidhu Ját tribe, and is entitled to a salute of 11 guns.

The Jind territory comprises an area of about 1236 square miles, and has a population estimated in 1875 at about 311,000. The revenue has rapidly increased of late years, and is now between 6 and 7 *lákhs* of rupees, or between £60,000 and £70,000. The military force consists of 4 field and 6 other guns, 79 artillerymen, 200 cavalry, 1600 infantry. The Rájá supplies 25 horsemen for general service in British territory.

Jingirám.—River of Assam, which rises in the Turá range of the Gáro Hills, and flows north into Goálpára District, emptying itself into the Brahmaputra a few miles above the town of Goálpára. It is navigable during the rainy seasons for boats of 2 tons burthen.

Jinjirá.—State and port in Bombay.—*See* JANJIRA.

Jírá.—Village in the south of Goálpára District, Assam, on the left or west bank of the Krishnái river, at the foot of the Gáro Hills. The weekly market is frequented by Gáros, who bring down lac and other products of their hills to exchange for cotton goods, salt, rice, dried fish, etc. Jírá has given its name to a *dwár* or lowland tract in the Gáro Hills, where valuable *sál* timber is found in the forests.

Jirál.—One of the petty States in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. It is under the same two chiefs as Kamsoli Moti and Kamsoli Náni, the total area of the three States being 3 square miles. The estimated revenue of Jirál in 1875 was £159, of which £7 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Jirang.—Petty democratic State in the Khási Hills, Assam; presided over by a *sardár* named Moti Sinh. Pop. (1872), 581. Natural products—rice, chillies, and caoutchouc. Cotton cloth is woven.

Jiri.—River of Assam.—*See* JHIRI.

Jobat.—One of the petty States in the Bhíl Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India, lying between 22° 24′ and 22° 36′ N. lat., and between 74° 37′ and 74° 51′ E. long. It is one of the offshoots of the Jodhpur State, and consists of a small tract of hilly country, populated almost entirely by Bhíls, which was left undisturbed during the turmoil which the Marhattá invasions caused in Málwá. The Ráná of Jobat, Swarúp Sinh, is a Rahtor Rájput. The area of the State is about 200 square miles; estimated population

(1875), 8000; and the revenue in the same year, £1700. Jobat town is situated in lat. 22° 27′ N., long. 74° 38′ E.

Jodhpur (also called *Márwár*).—State in Rájputána, under the political superintendency of the Rájputána Agency and the Government of India. It is bounded on the north by Bíkaner (Bickaneer) and the Shaikhwati District of Jáipur (Jeypore); on the east by Jáipur and Kishangarh; on the south-east by Ajmere-Mhairwára; on the south by Sirohi and Pálanpur; on the west by the Rann of Cutch (Kachhch) and the Thar and Párkar District of Sind; and on the north-west by Jáisalmír (Jeysulmere). It lies between lat. 24° 36′ and 27° 42′ N., and between long. 70° 6′ and 75° 24′ E. Its greatest length north-east and south-west is about 290 miles, and its greatest breadth, 130 miles. It contains an area of 37,000 square miles, being the largest State in Rájputána.

Physical Aspects.—The river Lúni is the most marked feature in the physical aspect of Jodhpur. It rises in the lake at Ajmere, and is first known as the Ságar Mati, taking the name of Lúni after its junction at Govindgarh with the Sarsuti, which has its source in the Pushkár Lake. From Govindgarh the river flows in a south-westerly direction through the State, and is finally lost in the marshy ground at the head of the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh). It is fed by numerous tributaries, chiefly from the Aravalli Hills. In heavy floods, which occur very rarely, it overflows its banks in the District of Malláni. The local name of this overflow is *rel*, and the crops of wheat and barley grown on the saturated soil are very fine. Wells are dug in the bed of the river in all the Districts of Jodhpur through which it flows, and in this way large tracts producing wheat and barley are irrigated. There is a saying in Márwár, that half the produce of the country, so far as cereals are concerned, is dependent on the Lúni. The river is, however, capricious and erratic. On one bank it may be a blessing, on the other a curse. This is seen in two villages in the Gura estate in the Mallání District. One is rich with crops, the other arid and bare; on one side the stream flows over sand, and its water is sweet,—on the other, over a hard bed, and its water is briny. The Lúni attains its greatest breadth in the Sachor and Mallání Districts. Its water is, as a rule, saline or brackish, but that of wells sunk at a distance of 20 or 30 yards from the banks of the river is comparatively sweet, and the inhabitants of all the villages situated in its neighbourhood depend for their drinking supply on these wells. Melons and the *singhara nut* (Trapa bispinosa) are grown in great quantities in the bed of the river during the dry season. The chief tributaries of the Lúni are the Jojri, the Súkri, the Reria or Páli, the Bánda, and the Juwái. The only important lake is the famous salt lake of SAMBHAR, on the borders of Jodhpur and Jáipur. Two other depressions of the same kind exist,

one in the north of Jodhpur at Dídwána, and the other in the south at Pachpadra. The annual out-turn of salt from these two latter lakes is estimated at about 1,200,000 *maunds* (say 43,000 tons). There are a few *jhíls* or marshes in Jodhpur, notably one in the Sachor District, which covers an area of 40 or 50 miles in the rainy season, and the bed of which, when dry, yields good crops of wheat and gram.

The geological characteristics of the country are somewhat complex and varied. The south-eastern boundary, viz. that portion of Mhairwára and the Aravalli range within the frontier of the State, consists principally of metamorphic or transition rocks, rising precipitously from the plains of Jodhpur, and in some localities attaining an elevation of 3000 feet. These rocks are chiefly gneiss, hornblende, quartz, and mica-slate; but in the higher hills bands of basalt and porphyry are seen, and occasionally granite, which, more towards the south, becomes the principal feature of the range, as at Abu. Passing from the Aravallis towards the west, the surface, even at the base of the mountain range, is found to be sandy; but the under stratum appears to be chiefly gneiss, hornblende, mica-slate and quartz, all of which may be seen cropping up through the sand, and in some places are from 800 to 1000 feet in height. The aspect of the country, therefore, as far as the Lúni river, which divides Jodhpur into two unequal parts, is that of a sandy plain, dotted with bold and picturesque conical hills, rising to the elevation above noted. The most prominent of these formations are—the Nádolai Hill, on which a colossal stone elephant has been placed; the Punnagír Hill, near Jadhan; the Sojat Hill; the Hill near Pali; the Hill near Gundoj; the Sanderas Hill; and the Jálor Hill. Immediately around these hills the ground is hard and stony, but gradually passes into sand, which becomes more heavy as the eastern and northern Districts are approached. After crossing the Lúni, or at about one-third of the breadth of the State, these conical hills are less numerous, and sandstone appears, but the metamorphic rocks are not lost sight of until the range is passed on which the capital, JODHPUR, is situated. The country to the north of Jodhpur city is one vast sandy plain, called the *thal*, only broken by sandhills or *tebas*, which, commencing in the State of Jodhpur, stretch into Bíkaner in the north, and into Jáisalmír (Jeysulmere) and Sind, to the west and south. In the Mallání District these sandhills rise in places to a height of 300 or 400 feet, and this part of the country resembles an undulating sea of sand. Throughout the *thal*, an occasional oasis is met with; but water is exceedingly scarce, and often from 200 to 300 feet below the surface. It is conjectured that the substratum of this part of the country is sandstone, as that is passed through in sinking the deep wells, but no special investigations have been made. Zinc used to be obtained in large quantities near Sojat. The country is rich in salt, which is obtained in large quantities, chiefly

from the natural lake of SAMBHAR. At Pachpadra in the south, and at other places, salt is crystallized from the water of wells. Marble exists in abundance at Makráná in the north, and also in smaller masses near Gháneráo on the south-east border. *Multáni matti* or fuller's earth is found in considerable quantities at Kapuri; it is used by natives of all castes for washing the hair. This earth is taken for sale to Umarkot in Sind, to Jodhpur, and Bíkaner. It sells on the spot at about 2 annas (3d.) a bullock-load.

The Population of Jodhpur consists of Rájputs, the conquerors and lords of the soil; of Charans, Bháts, Játs, Bishnáwis, Minas, and Bhíls, the aboriginal inhabitants; and of the usual mixed Hindu population, with a scanty number of Muhammadans. The Charans, a sacred race, hold large religious grants of land, and enjoy peculiar immunities as traders in local produce. The Bháts are by profession genealogists, but also engage in trade. The Minas, Bauris, and Bhíls are predatory classes, but are employed in menial capacities. The Muhammadans are principally soldiers, the word *sipáhi* being used generally to designate a Muhammadan. The natives, as a race, are enterprising and industrious, but the agricultural classes have to undergo great privations from poor food, and often bad water. Márwári traders are to be found throughout the length and breadth of the peninsula, especially in the Deccan. In pursuit of trade, they quit their homes for years, only revisiting them on occasions of marriages or family concerns. No Census of the population has ever been taken, but it has roughly been calculated at about 2,850,000, of whom 86 per cent. are said to be Hindus, 10 per cent. Jains, and 4 per cent. Muhammadans. Supposing the total number of inhabitants to be tolerably correct, this would make an average of 77·2 to the square mile; and local authorities calculate the number of Rahtor Rájputs at 200,000, which gives a percentage of 3·40. In the sandy portion of Márwár, and throughout Malláni, the houses are mostly beehive-shaped huts, with the exception of the Thákur's residence, which in small villages is generally of mud, with a thatch roof. The villages are enclosed with a strong fence to keep out wild animals and thieves. The middle classes generally dwell in houses constructed of mud, with thatch roofs; those of the *mahájans* (traders) are frequently of stone and mortar, whilst in some villages the Thákur's house is a handsome well-constructed residence. The lower classes are generally temperate, laborious, and economical; their dress is of the most simple kind; as a rule, they partake of two meals a day, consisting of bread, vegetables (generally dried), and curds and milk. Their houses usually contain nothing but a few cooking utensils and sleeping cots; carpets and rugs are rarely used, the people sitting on the bare ground. The majority of the cultivators are Játs, Sirwis, Bishnáwis, Pitáls, Rájputs, and Muham-

madans of the country, such as Káim Khánis, who enjoy grants of land.

Agriculture.—The principal rain crops are pulses and millets—*bájra*, *moth*, *til*, and *joár*. In the fertile portion of the State enclosed within the branches of the Lúni, wheat and barley are produced in considerable quantities. Cotton is occasionally seen near wells, but the staple is poor. Opium is cultivated in the south-east portion of the State, in the vicinity of the Aravalli range of hills, where the water is sweet and the soil rich. Tobacco and sugar-cane are also grown, but not extensively. The soils of Márwár have been classified under the following heads :—*Báikal*, the most prevalent, is a light sand, having little or no earthy admixture, and only fit for the production of *bájra*, *moth*, *til* (sesamum), water-melons, and other cucurbitaceous plants; *Chikna*, a clayey fat black earth, producing chiefly wheat; *Pila*, a yellow sandy clay adapted for barley, tobacco, onions, and vegetables; *Safedi* (white), a soil of siliceous nature, only productive after heavy rains; *Khari*, alkaline earth, poisonous to all vegetation. In the sandy parts of the State, the rain sinks into the soil, and does not flow off the surface, so that a very small rainfall suffices for the crops. When the rainy season commences, the sandhills are ploughed by camels, and the seed planted very deep in the ground. After it has sprouted, a few showers at long intervals bring it to maturity; and as the light-built desert camels are quick movers, each householder is able to put a large extent of ground under crop. The produce in a favourable season is more than sufficient for the wants of the population, but, unfortunately, the means of storing grain are difficult to be got, as burnt earthen vessels for the purpose have to be brought from long distances. The surplus produce is therefore frequently left on the ground as fodder for the cattle. Irrigation works are rare; but care is taken to make the best use of the scanty rainfall by embanking the fields, so that the water is retained for two or three months, until the soil becomes sufficiently saturated to produce crops of wheat. Irrigation is also carried on by Persian wheels and ordinary wells where the water is not more than 75 feet in depth; beyond that depth, well irrigation is not remunerative. No uniform system of assessment of land revenue exists in Márwár; it varies in different localities, but one-third of the actual produce is the prevailing rate. In Nagar, the land yields a single luxuriant rain-crop, of which the extreme share of one-half falls to the landlord. In the *thal*, or sandy portions of the State, where labour is scarce, and the ground yields poor and uncertain returns, the landlord's share sometimes falls as low as one-fourteenth.

The Manufactures of the State of Jodhpur are of no great importance in a commercial point of view. Turbans and scarves and embroidered silk knotted thread for wearing on the turban, are

specialities of the country. Leather boxes for holding clothes and brass utensils are also manufactured. The principal exports are salt, cattle, sheep, goats, horses, cotton, wool, dyed cloth, hides, and pomegranates. From Makrána, marble and marble manufactures are exported, and stone from various quarries. Stone flour-mills are constructed at Barmer in Mallámi, and exported in large numbers. The chief imports are *gúr* and *kaúd* (coarse and refined sugar), and rice from Bhiwáni in Hissar, opium from Kotah, Udáipur (Oodeypore), and Beáwar. From Bombay come English piece-goods, silver and copper; from Guzerat, spices of every kind, dates, gum-arabic, borax, cocoa-nuts, silk, sandalwood, and dyes. Corn is imported from Sind and Bhiwáni. Trade is carried on chiefly by permanent markets at Jodhpur, Páli, Merta, Parbatsar, Nagar, Didwána, Pachpadra, Phalodi, Jalor, Pipar, and Balotra, the chief towns. In ordinary years, the local crops suffice for local wants, but the local manufactures do not.

Medical Aspects.—The prevailing diseases are malarious or paroxysmal fevers, especially in the autumnal season, when the extremes of temperature are first experienced. Skin affections are also very prevalent, probably caused by the bad water and indifferent food of the lower classes, and partly owing to their dirty habits, the latter being in some degree the result of a scarcity of water for household use. The food of the people, consisting chiefly of *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), is also instrumental in the production of dyspeptic complaints, which would be even more prevalent, were it not for the abundance and cheapness of salt throughout the country. Guinea-worm and mycetoma or madura-foot are also diseases of the soil. Of epidemic maladies, small-pox occurs periodically with some violence. Cholera, however, comparatively seldom presents itself, and still more rarely penetrates the semi-desert Districts to the west of the city of Jodhpur.

History. — The present ruling chief of Jodhpur is His Highness the Mahárájá Jaswant Sinh, who holds that position as chief of the Rahtor clan of Rájputs, to whom the territory belongs. The princes of Jodhpur, like their rivals of Udáipur (Oodeypore), term themselves Surjya Vansa or the 'Solar race,' and claim descent from Ráma. The founder of the dynasty migrated from Kanauj; and the Rahtor race, from its warlike and aggressive propensities, became the most powerful clan of the Rájputs. Several independent States were founded by offshoots from it, among which are the present States of Bíkaner (Bickaneer) and Kishengarh in Rájputána, and Edar and Ahmednagar in Guzerat. It is probable that the Játs, the Minas, and the Bhíls originally held the country of Márwár in separate petty chiefships before the Rahtor conquest. The local historians relate that subsequently to the fall of the Rahtor dynasty of Kanauj in 1194 A.D., Sivají, the grandson of Jái Chánd, the last king of Kanauj, entered Márwár on a pilgrimage to

Dwarka, and, halting at the town of Páli, he and his followers displayed their valour by repelling large bands of marauders. At the entreaty of the Bráhman community of the place, who were greatly harassed by constant raids of plundering bands, Sivají agreed to settle among them and become their protector. The Rahtor chief, acquiring land and power around Páli, gained there the first footing in the future kingdom. His son and successor, Asthan, extended the domain by conquering the land of Kher from the Gohel Rájputs, and established his brother Soning in Edar, then a small principality on the frontier of Guzerat. It was not, however, till the time of Ráo Chánda, the tenth in succession from Sivají, that Mandor, then the capital of Márwár, was acquired by the Rahtors. From the time of Chánda, about 1382 A.D., the actual conquest of Márwár by the Rahtors may be dated. Chánda was succeeded by Ráo Rir Mall, a famous warrior. His son Jodha ruled after him, and founded the city of Jodhpur, which he made his capital. In 1528, the Rahtors fought under the standard of Udáipur (Oodeypore) against the Mughal Emperor Bábar, on the field of Khanua. In 1544, the Afghán Sher Sháh led an army of 80,000 men into Márwár, and obtained victory, but only after a narrow escape from defeat. In 1561, the Emperor Akbar invaded the country, and eventually the chief of Jodhpur succumbed to necessity, and, as was the custom of the time, sent his son as a mark of homage to take service under the Mughal emperor. When this son, Udái Sinh, succeeded to the chiefship, he gave his sister Jodhbái in marriage to Akbar, and was rewarded by the restoration of the former possessions of his house in Márwár, with the exception of Ajmere; but several rich Districts in Málwá were added. The son of Udái Sinh, Rájá Sur Sinh, attained to high honour with Akbar, for whom he conquered Guzerat (Gujrát) and the Deccan (Dakshin). On the occasion of the contests among the four sons of Sháh Jahán, Jaswant Sinh, successor to Rájá Sur, was appointed to the command of the army sent against Aurangzeb. He was, however, defeated; and though he made peace with Aurangzeb afterwards, he was never forgiven. Aurangzeb, to get rid of him, appointed him to lead an army against the Afgháns. Jaswant Sinh died beyond Attock (Atak), leaving a posthumous son, Ajit Sinh. During the infancy of the latter, Aurangzeb invaded Márwár, plundered Jodhpur, sacked all the large towns, and commanded the conversion of the Rahtor race to Muhammadanism. This cemented into a bond of union all who cherished either patriotism or religion; and the Rájputs, making common cause, held their own against the Muhammadan power. Ajit Sinh was a party to the triple alliance with Udáipur and Jáipur, to throw off the Muhammadan yoke. One of the conditions of this alliance was, that the chiefs of Jáipur and Jodhpur should regain the privilege of marriage with the Udáipur

family, which they had forfeited by contracting alliances with the Mughal emperors, on the understanding that the offspring of the princesses of Udáipur should succeed to the State in preference to all other children. Ajit Sinh was murdered by his son Bakht Sinh; but the quarrels arising from the stipulation in the above treaty lasted through generations, and led to the invitation of the help of Marhattá leaders by the aspirants to power in support of their claims, and finally to the subjection of all the Rájput States to the court of Poona. Jodhpur was conquered by Sindhia, who levied a tribute of 60 *lákhs* of rupees (£60,000), and took from it the fort and city of Ajmere. At the commencement of the Marhattá war of 1803, Mán Sinh had just been elected by the nobles to be chief of Jodhpur, after a long struggle with his cousin Bhim Sinh. The alliance of the British Government was offered to him, and a treaty drawn up, but it was not ratified; and Mán Sinh, having meanwhile given assistance to Holkar, the treaty was formally cancelled in 1804, and Mán Sinh left to his own resources. Thereafter, troubles came quickly upon Jodhpur, owing to internal disputes regarding the succession of Dhokal Sinh, a reputed son of Bhim Sinh, and a disastrous war with Jáipur for the hand of the daughter of the Rání of Udáipur. The aid of the great Pindárí freebooter, Amír Khán, was called in first by the Jáipur and afterwards by the Jodhpur Rájá. Amír Khán thus became the arbiter of affairs in Márwár; and after terrifying the Mahárájá into abdication and pretended insanity, ended by plundering the treasury and leaving the country with its resources completely exhausted. Chhatar Sinh, the only son of the Mahárájá, assumed the regency on the withdrawal of Amír Khán in 1817. With him the British Government commenced negotiations at the outbreak of the Pindárí war, and a treaty was concluded in January 1818, by which Jodhpur was taken under the protection of the British Government, the tribute payable to Sindhia was transferred to the British, and the Rájá engaged to furnish a contingent of 1500 horse when required, and the whole forces of the Jodhpur State when necessary. Chhatar Sinh died shortly after the conclusion of the treaty, whereupon his father threw off the mask of insanity, and resumed the administration. In 1824, 21 villages in Mhairwára were made over temporarily to the British Government, with a view of bringing the lawless Minas and Mhairs into submission. The lease expired in 1843, but the Rájá expressed his readiness to leave the villages under British administration. No definite arrangement was made, and the tract is still being administered on this footing. The desert tract of Mallání has also been under the superintendence of the Political Agent since 1836. It belongs to Jodhpur, but the feudatories acknowledge the Rájá's supremacy merely by paying an annual tribute of £688, which is

collected by the Political Agent, and paid over to the Jodhpur Government.

The misgovernment of Mán Sinh, and the consequent disaffection and insurrection in the State, reached such a pitch that in 1839 the British Government was compelled to interfere. A force was marched to Jodhpur, of which it held military occupation for five months, and Mán Sinh executed an engagement to ensure future good government. Four years after this, Mán Sinh died, without sons of his body, and without adopting an heir. The succession lay between the chiefs of Edar and Ahmednagar, Edar being the nearest of kin (*see* EDAR). It was left to the widows, the nobles, and the State officials interested to select the future ruler. Their choice fell upon Takht Sinh, chief of Ahmednagar, a direct descendant of Rájá Ajit Sinh, whom with his son Jaswant Sinh they invited to Jodhpur. Owing to constant disputes between the Darbár (official administration) and the Thákurs (feudatory chiefs), the affairs of Jodhpur remained in an unsatisfactory state during the administration of Rájá Takht Sinh, but he was loyal to the British Government, and did good service during the Mutiny. He died in February 1873, and was succeeded by his son Jaswant Sinh, the present ruler, who was born about 1837. The Mahárájá has received the right of adoption, and has been created a K.C.S.I.

The constitution of Jodhpur has been hitherto generally spoken of as feudal, but exception has been taken to this epithet by a recent writer of authority, who suggests that it may be more accurately described as a tribal suzerainty rapidly passing into the feudal stage. The institutions of the State are highly favourable to general peace and the protection of personal property, provided that the tribal chiefs live in harmony with their suzerain, and with one another, for there is a chain of authority running from the ruler to the possessor of a circle of 100 villages and of 1 village. The rights of all classes of the agricultural community are well defined, understood, and thoroughly respected, except in periods of anarchy and misrule. The *pattáit* or tribal chief of any magnitude is the ruler of his estate, and the judge almost exclusively in all matters of civil and criminal jurisdiction over his people. The Thákurs of Jodhpur owe military service to their suzerain, and exact the same from their brethren to whom assignments of land have been made, and who form their following,—the whole constituting the following of the suzerain himself. The fiscal lands are managed by Hákims or Provincial Governors; but these hardly amount to one-fifth of those in the possession of Thákurs and *jagírdárs.* The right of Government to a certain money rate or share of the produce is so well understood, that the agricultural classes everywhere live in comparative security.

Administration.—At Jodhpur city there are civil and criminal courts presided over by separate officials. The Mahárájá alone has power of life and death, and final appeals lie to him in all but petty cases. Most of the District cases are disposed of by the Hákims or Provincial Governors. The Thákurs within their estates assume independent magisterial authority; and until lately, it was only the lower feudatories who would surrender criminals or brook interference in criminal cases. Arbitration is generally resorted to in all civil disputes. There is one large newly constructed jail at Jodhpur city, to which, as a rule, all prisoners sentenced to more than three months' imprisonment are sent. At the headquarters of each District there is a lock-up. Police duties are generally conducted by the army, no separate establishment existing. There are 3 dispensaries in the city of Jodhpur, one at the town of Páli, one at Nagar, and one at Jessol in Malláni. The Mahárájá is very liberal in responding to any call for these charitable institutions.

Education in an advanced form is unknown in Márwár. A large proportion of the population can read and write Hindí; amongst whom are included most of the ladies of good birth, which it is believed is peculiar to this State. The capital now possesses 2 good schools, one for the sons of Thákurs and the higher classes, the other for the children of trades-people downwards. At both these schools, English is taught, as well as the vernacular languages. There are also schools supported by the State in some of the towns, and every large village possesses one, presided over by the local Jain priest. The language spoken in Jodhpur is a peculiar patois called Marwarí, considered to have an affinity to Hindí.

There is one metalled road, 100 miles in length, running through Jodhpur; it is the main route from Ajmere to Ahmedábád in Bombay. The Western Rájputána Railway, on the metre gauge, now in progress to connect the Rájputána State Railway at Ajmere with the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway at Ahmedábád, will skirt the eastern border of Jodhpur. The Rájputána State Railway touches on the territory in the branch line to the Sambhar Salt Lake, which is on the boundaries of Jodhpur and Jáipur.

The revenue of the State is mainly derived from the land, salt, custom dues, a cess imposed on the feudatory nobles, succession dues, etc. The total receipts may be calculated at about 25 *lákhs* of rupees (say £250,000). In addition to this, the numerous nobles of Márwár enjoy very large incomes, and there are also a great number of religious and other free grants, which amount probably altogether to more than double the revenue receipts.

In the treaty of 1818, it was stipulated that the tribute hitherto paid to Sindhia by the Jodhpur State should be paid in perpetuity to the British Government. This tribute amounted to Rs. 108,000,

but has been reduced to Rs. 98,000 annually (say £9,800), Rs. 10,000 having been remitted as compensation for the fort of Umarkot in Sind. In the same treaty, it was agreed that the Jodhpur State should furnish a contingent of 15,000 horse when required. In 1832, a demand was made for a force to co-operate against freebooters who occupied Nagar Párkar. The contingent failed in its duty, and proved utterly useless. In 1835, therefore, the obligation to furnish the force was commuted to an annual payment of £11,500 towards the Jodhpur Legion which was then raised. This Legion mutinied in 1857. Its place is now supplied by the Erinpura Irregular Force. The military establishment of the State, in addition to this, consists of 20 field and 250 other guns, 240 gunners, 3545 cavalry, and 5020 infantry.

Climate.—The climate of Jodhpur at all seasons may be described as dry. This dryness is due to the geographical position of the State, the geological nature of the surface, and the absence of forest vegetation. The Aravalli range separates it from the more fertile Districts of Udáipur. The country is therefore beyond the range of the full force of the south-west monsoon from the Indian Ocean, and entirely removed from the influence of the south-east monsoon from the Bay of Bengal. Also the clouds from the south-west, before arriving at Jodhpur, must float above extensive arid Districts, as the sandy tracts of Northern Guzerat, Cutch (Kachchh), the Rann, and the desert Districts of Umarkot and Párkar. This results in a very small rainfall, which at the centre of the country, *i.e.* the city of Jodhpur (at which place only have meteorological observations been recorded, and those only recently), does not often exceed the average of 5½ inches, and is frequently much less. In the Márwár Agency Report, 1875-76, the Political Agent reports:—'Márwár was blessed this year with an unusually good supply of rain. A register was kept in the city, which gave 13·92 as the total fall of the year.' There was in consequence some damage caused by floods during the rainy months. The Lúni contains only scanty pools of water, and its tributaries are dry during ten months of the year. The sandy soil, the brackish water nearly everywhere found, and the prevalence of the saline efflorescence known as *reh*, are the principal reasons why there is so little of either wild jungle growth or of cultivated ground. Thus all conditions unite in producing that extraordinary dryness characteristic of Márwár. The next most striking peculiarity of the climate is the extreme variation of temperature which occurs in the cold season between the night and the day. This depends in a great degree on the dryness of the atmosphere, the heat given off by the earth at night passing freely through dry air, whereas it is absorbed and retained by the damp of a moist atmosphere. Thus it happens that on the sandy soil of Jodhpur, while the nights may be

sufficiently cold for ice to form, the days are often marked by a temperature of 90° F. in the shade of a tent. Similarly, although hot winds prevail with great violence in the months of April, May, and June, the nights are fairly cool.

Jodhpur.—The capital of the Rájput State of the same name. Lat. 26° 17′ N., long. 73° 4′ E. It was built by Ráo Jodha in 1549 A.D., and from that time has been the seat of Government of the principality of Jodhpur or Márwár. It is placed in the southern slope of a small range of hills running east and west, the prevailing geological formation of which is red sandstone. The fort commanding the city is built on a sandstone rock rising to the height of 800 feet, having to the north cones of porphyry and masses of trap of various descriptions placed in juxtaposition to the sandstone. The layers of this sandstone are usually parallel with the horizon, and they generally rise abruptly out of the sand below, but are sometimes visibly supported by trap or metamorphic rock. In some places, porphyritic trap is ranged in stairs, and has apparently been thrown up at a later date than the sandstone, without having materially damaged the stratification of the latter. The city is surrounded by a strong wall nearly 6 miles in extent, and there are seventy gates, each bearing the name of the place to which it leads. The fort stands on an isolated rock, the highest point of the range, and contains the Mahárájá's palace, a large and handsome building, completely covering the crest of the hill on which it stands, and overlooking the city, which lies several hundred feet below. The city contains many handsome buildings—palaces of the Mahárájá, and town residences of the Thákurs or nobles, besides numerous fine temples and tanks. Building stone is plentiful, and close at hand, and the architecture solid and handsome. Three miles north from Jodhpur are the ruins of Mandor, which is interesting from having been the site of the ancient capital of the Purihar Princes of Márwár, prior to its conquest by the Rahtors. It contains the cenotaphs of the ruling chiefs of the country, erected on the spot where the funeral pyre consumed the remains of those who in former days were seldom burned alone. There are also stone effigies of gallant chieftains of Márwár, curious as specimens of rude carving by workmen of the country.

Jogigarh.—Fort in Gwalior State, Central India; situated on a small island in the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river. Lat. 22° 25′ N., long. 76° 51′ E. A rapid at this point renders navigation impracticable except during the rains, when a passage can be effected by small boats.

Jogi-gophá.—Village in Goálpára District, Assam; on the right or north bank of the Brahmaputra, opposite the town of Goálpára. In old days, before the conquest of Assam by the British, it possessed considerable importance as a centre of frontier trade. It contains the

temple of Dudhnáth, sacred to Siva, which is frequented by Hindu pilgrims from distant parts of India; and in the neighbourhood are many artificial caverns, cut in the rocky face of the hills, which are believed to have been occupied in former times by religious devotees.

Jogi-maradi.—Highest peak in a broken mountain range that crosses Chitaldrúg District, Mysore State; 3803 feet above sea level.

Jolakab Mallái.—Mountain in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 14′ 20″ N., long. 76° 29′ 50″ E.

Jollárpet (*Jolárampatti*, *Jalárapet*, *Jolárampetti*).—Town in Tirupatúr *táluk*, Salem District, Madras. Lat. 12° 34′ N., long. 78° 38′ E.; 1320 feet above sea level. Contains 254 houses, with (1871) 1024 inhabitants, of whom one-half are Pariahs. A *zamíndárí* village, important only as a first-class railway station and junction for Bangalore. Number of passengers (1875), 136,000; receipts, £9000.

Jomá-male.—Mountain in the territory of Coorg, being one of the highest peaks in the main range of the Western Gháts, about 6 miles south-east of Tadiándamol, and overlooking the Kodantora Pass. It is sacred to Maletambiran, a Malayálam god.

Jorhát.—Subdivision in Síbságar District, Assam; formed in 1869. Pop. (1872), 116,856. In 1870-71, there were 2 magisterial and civil courts, and a police force of 25 men. The separate cost of administration in that year was returned at £1454.

Jorhát.—Village in Síbságar District, Assam, and headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name; lying in lat. 26° 46′ N., and 94° 16′ E., on the left or west bank of the Disái river, about 12 miles south of Kokilámukh on the Brahmaputra. Pop. (1872), 1310. Situated amid valuable tea-gardens, and at the centre of a system of roads, Jorhát has become the most important mart in the District, though the Disái can scarcely be called a navigable river. In 1865, out of a total of 160 shops in the *bázár*, 28 were occupied by Márwárí or Jain traders from the north-west, who import cotton goods, salt, and hardware from Bengal, in return for which they export silk, cotton, mustard seed, and jungle products. A few shops were kept by native Muhammadans, who chiefly sell 'Europe' goods and furniture; the remainder were petty stalls for retailing rice, oil, and vegetables. Many of the tea-gardens consign their produce by river steamer direct to England. The Jorhát Tea Company is chiefly owned by shareholders in that country. The public buildings include a lock-up and a charitable dispensary. At the close of the last century, Jorhát was at various times the residence of Rájá Gaurináth, the last of the independent kings of the Aham dynasty.

Jorya.—Fortified town in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 22° 40′ N., long. 70° 26′ 30″ E.; 145 miles west of Ahmedábád.

Pop. (1872), 6592. Jorya is a seaport on the south-eastern shores of the Gulf of Cutch (Kachchh), but the water off this part of the coast is too shallow for ships of any considerable burthen. According to a local legend, the gulf from this place to the opposite coast of Cutch could be crossed by a footpath at low water 200 years ago.

Joshimath.—Village in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 30° 33′ 25″ N., and long. 79° 36′ 35″ E., at the confluence of the Alaknanda and the Dhauli. Chiefly remarkable as the winter residence of the Ráwal, or priest of the temple of BADRINATH, who retires hither after the snows have rendered the higher shrine inaccessible. The village contains several ancient temples. Elevation above sea level, 6200 feet.

Jotdár.—Channel of the DEVI, or branch of the Mahánadi estuary, in the south-east of Cuttack District, Bengal. Enters the sea in lat. 20° 11′ N., and long. 86° 34′ E.

Joura.—State in Central India.—*See* JAORA.

Jowái.—Administrative headquarters of the Jáintia Hills Subdivision, Khási Hills District, Assam; 4422 feet above sea level. Population of the station and surrounding villages (1872), 4502. Jowái is the residence of the Assistant Deputy Commissioner; and, as the centre of a system of hill roads, it possesses a considerable trade. The chief exports are raw cotton and caoutchouc; the imports—rice, dried fish, cotton goods, and salt. The average annual rainfall is about 150 inches; but in 1876 as much as 309 inches of rain were registered, of which 134 inches fell in the single month of June. Jowái was the centre of the Jaintiá rebellion of 1862.

Júbá.—Deserted fortress in Sargújá State, Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; about 2 miles south-east of Mánpura village. It stands on the rocky shoulder of a hill, and commands a deep gorge overgrown with jungle. Among the trees are the remains of carved temples, almost covered with accumulations of vegetable mould. Here Colonel Ousely found a complete *linga*, with a well-carved face and head projecting from its surface.

Jubbal (*Jubal*).—One of the Hill States under the Government of the Punjab, situated between 30° 46′ and 31° 4′ N. lat., and between 77° 27′ and 77° 50′ E. long. Jubbal was originally tributary to Sírmúr, but after the Gurkhá war it was made independent. The Ráná misgoverned the State, and in 1832 abdicated in favour of the British Government. He very soon, however, repented the act, and refused the allowance of £440 a year, which was made for his support. After a lengthy correspondence, it was resolved in 1840 to restore the State. In that year the Ráná died, and Government approved the succession of his son, Tika Karm Chánd, the present Ráná of Jubbal. He is a Rahtor Rájput. The area of the State is 288 square miles; the population in 1876 was estimated at 40,000 persons, and the revenue at £3000.

The chief products are opium and grain. Sentences of death passed by the Ráná require the confirmation of the Superintendent of Hill States and of the Commissioner of the Division. Other punishments are awarded by the Ráná on his own authority.

Jubbulpore.—Division, District, *tahsíl*, and city in the Central Provinces.—*See* JABALPUR.

Juggaur.—Town and railway station in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated about 3 miles south of the Lucknow and Faizábád (Fyzábád road). A Musalmán village conquered from the Bhars by a family of Shaikhs, who colonized 52 villages in this part of the country, for which they received a *farmán* confirming them in the proprietary right. Their descendants are still proprietors of Juggaur. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 1852; Muhammadans, 546; total, 2398.

Juhar (*Jawahír*).—Valley in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 10′ to 30° 35′ N., long. 79° 49′ to 80° 19′ E. One of the Bhutiá *mahásl*, or tracts on the northern Himálayan slopes, inhabited by people of Thibetan origin. The population have, however, adopted the language, customs, and religion of their Hindu neighbours. They are chiefly engaged in commerce, being the only Bhutiás who enjoy unrestricted intercourse with Gartoh, where a great annual fair is held in September. During the official year 1876-77, the value of the imports by Lilam from Jawahír amounted to £12,600, and that of the exports to £4100.

Ju-i-Sharki.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated 9 miles from Bareli town, at a distance of 2 miles from the Sái river. Pop. (1869), 3496. Government school.

Juláguri.—Village in Nowgong District, Assam. A fair, attended by about 5000 persons, is annually held here for one day in March, and is said to have been introduced in the reign of the Aham kings. Its primary object is the performance of religious plays in honour of certain deities.

Jullundur. — Division, District, *tahsíl*, and city, Punjab. — *See* JALANDHAR.

Jummoo.—Province and town in Kashmír State, Punjab. — *See* KASHMIR AND JAMMU.

Jumna (*Jamuná*).—A river of the North-Western Provinces and of the Punjab. It rises in the Himálayas, in the Native State of Garhwál, about 5 miles north of Jamnotri, and about 8 miles north-west of the lofty mountain Bandarpánch (20,731 feet), in lat. 31° 3′ N., and long. 78° 30′ E. From this place the Jumna flows south for 7 miles, past Jamnotri, and then turns to the south-west for 32 miles, receiving on its right bank two small streams, the Badiar and the Kamaláda; thence it runs due south for 26 miles, receiving the Badri and the Aslaur as tributaries. Just below the point of junction of the latter, the Jumna

turns sharply to the west, and continues in this direction for 14 miles, till it is joined on its right bank by the great river Tons from the north, and at the same time it emerges from the Himálayas into the valley of the Dún, in long. 77° 53′ E. From this point it flows in a south-westerly direction for 22 miles, dividing the Kiarda Dún on the west from the Dehra Dún on the east; and it receives in this stretch two large affluents, the Giri from Sírmúr and the west, and the Asan from the east.

In the 95th mile of its course, the Jumna leaves the Siwálik Hills and enters the plains at Faizábád in Sahháranpur District. It now flows for 65 miles in a south-south-west direction, dividing the Districts of Umballa (Ambálá) and Karnál in the Punjab from those of Sahháranpur and Muzaffarnagar in the North-Western Provinces. By the time the Jumna debouches on the plains, it has become a large river, and near Faizábád it gives off both the Western and Eastern Jumna Canals. At Rájghát, it receives the Maskarra stream from the east, but no other tributaries of any size join it in this section. Near Bidhauli, in Muzaffarnagar District, it turns due south, and runs in that direction for 80 miles till it reaches the city of Delhi; here it turns south-east for 27 miles to near Dankaur, when it again resumes its southerly course. In this portion it receives on the east the Kathanadi and the Hindan river, while on the west the Sabinadi joins it a little north of Delhi. The Jumna here separates the Punjab Districts of Karná and Delhi and the Native State of Ballabhgarh from the Districts of Muzaffarnagar, Meerut, and Bulandshahr, in the North-Western Provinces. From Dankaur to Mahában, near Muttra, a distance of about 100 miles, the Jumna receives no affluents of any size; it divides the Punjab District of Gurgáon from the Districts of Bulandshahr and Alígarh in the North-Western Provinces, and near Hodal it enters the North-Western Provinces altogether. It flows through the centre of the District of Muttra till it leaves it near Mahában to enter the District of Agra. The Agra Canal forms a recent and an important work.

From Mahában the Jumna turns eastwards and flows a little south by east for nearly 200 miles. In this part of its course the river winds in a remarkable manner through the ravines of Agra and Etáwah Districts; the bed of the stream is narrower, and the banks higher and steeper than in its upper reaches. It receives on its left or northern bank the Karwannádi near Agra, and on its right or southern the river Utanghan. It passes the towns of Agra, Firozábád, and Etáwah. From Etáwah the Jumna takes a more southerly direction, and flows south-east for 140 miles to Hamírpur. In this portion of its course the river passes through the southern tract of Etáwah, and then forms the boundary between Etáwah and Cawnpore Districts on the north, and Jaláun and Hamírpur Districts on the south. On its north bank

the Jumna is joined by the Sengur a little below Kálpi; and on its south bank, by the great river Chambal from the west 40 miles below Etáwah, and the Sind on the borders of Etáwah and Jaláun.

From Hamírpur, till its junction with the Ganges at Allahábád, the Jumna flows nearly due east. It separates the Districts of Fatehpur and Allahábád on the north from that of Bánda on the south, until it enters Allahábád District, and finally falls into the Ganges, in lat. 25° 25′ N., and long. 81° 55′ E., 3 miles below the city of ALLAHABAD, the only important town which the Jumna passes during this last section of its course. Its chief tributaries in this part of its course are the Betwa and the Ken.

The Jumna, after issuing from the hills, has a longer course through the North-Western Provinces than the Ganges, but it is not so large or so important a river, and above Agra in the hot weather it dwindles to a small stream. This is no doubt partly caused by the two canals (the Eastern and Western Jumna Canals) taken off from it at Faizábád, where it issues from the Dún.

The trade on the Jumna is not now very considerable; in its upper portion timber, and in the lower stone, grain, and cotton are the chief articles of commerce, carried in the clumsy barges which navigate its waters. These have sails, and always take advantage of a favourable wind; at other times they float down with the current, or are slowly and laboriously tugged up against stream by long strings of boatmen. Its waters are clear and blue, while those of the Ganges are yellow and muddy; and at the point of junction below the fort at Allahábád the difference between the streams can be discerned for some distance below the point at which they unite. Its banks are high and rugged, often attaining the proportions of cliffs, and the ravines which run into it are deeper and larger than those of the Ganges. It traverses in great part the extreme edge of the alluvial plain of Hindustán, and in the latter part of its course almost touches the Bundelkhand offshoots of the Vindhyá range of mountains. Its passage is therefore more tortuous, and the scenery along its banks is more varied and pleasing than that of the Ganges.

The Jumna at its source near Jamnotri is 10,849 feet above the sea level; at Kotnur, 16 miles lower, it is only 5036 feet; so that, between these two places, it falls at the rate of 314 feet in a mile. At its junction with the Tons, it is 1686 feet above the sea; at its junction with the Asan, 1470 feet; and at the point where it issues from the Siwálik Hills into the plains, it is 1276 feet. The catchment area of the Jumna is 118,000 square miles; its flood discharge at Allahábád, 1,333,000 cubic feet per second; discharge per square mile of catchment area, 11·3 cubic feet per second.

The Jumna is now crossed by railway bridges at Delhi, Agra, and

Allahábád; and there are bridges of boats at Etáwah, Kálpi, Hamírpur, Muttra, Chillatára, and many other places.

Jumna (*Jamuná*) **Canal, Eastern.**—An important irrigation work in Sahåranpur, Muzaffarnagar, and Meerut (Mírath) Districts, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 38′ to 30° 19′ N., long. 77° 19′ to 77° 38′ E. It derives its supply from the left or eastern bank of the river Jumna, irrigates the western portion of the Upper Doáb, and eventually is absorbed into the Jumna (Jamná) in Meerut District, after a course of 130 miles. The frequent recurrence of famines in this part of India, before the establishment of British rule, and for some years subsequently, caused attention to be directed at an early period of our occupation to the necessity for an extended system of canals. Owing to the pressure of other important measures, however, it was not till the close of 1823 that the actual work of excavation commenced, and the canal reached its completion in 1830. Being the first large irrigation scheme undertaken in India by our authorities, some changes in detail became necessary at a later period, but the work as a whole reflects the greatest credit upon its projectors. From the Jumna head-works to a point opposite Alampur, the bed consists of boulders or shingle, gradually decreasing in size; thenceforward to Sarkári, sand and clay predominate on the bottom, interspersed between Sarkári and Jauli with nodular carbonate of lime, and merging below Jauli into pure sand. The Western Jumna Canal, originally known as the 'Doáb Canal,' was formed on the line of an old canal ascribed to Alí Mardan Khán. But it is probable that this ancient canal was quickly abandoned by its native projectors on account of the great engineering difficulties near its head. The old work scarcely aided in diminishing the expense of reconstruction. The Western Jumna Canal was executed by Major Robert Smith of the Engineers, assisted by Lieutenant Proby Cautly of the Bengal Artillery, by whom the works were subsequently developed and perfected.

On the sandy sections, erosion has been avoided by the construction of falls, also utilized as motive-power for flour-mills. Rows of *sál*, *sisu*, teak, and *tún* trees fringe the bank, and their timber forms an important item in the revenue. The total area irrigated by the canal during the year 1875-76 amounted to 195,846 acres, of which 87,294 belonged to the *kharíf* or autumn harvest, and 108,552 to the *rabí* or spring harvest. The average water supply at Kalsiya in the same year was 1167 cubic feet for the *kharíf*, and 991 cubic feet for the *rabí*. The area irrigated for each cubic foot of supply was accordingly 74·8 acres in the former case, and 108·5 acres in the latter. The water was dispersed by means of main distributaries, having a total length of 618 miles. The following table shows the tariff at present (1876) in force:—

Class.	Nature of Crop.	Per Acre Irrigated by		Per
		Natural Flow.	Lift.	
		s. d.	s. d.	
I.	Sugar-cane, . . .	10 0	6 8	Year.
II.	Rice, tobacco, opium, vegetables, gardens, or orchards, . . .	6 0	4 0	Crop.
III.	All *rabí* crops, indigo, cotton, ...	4 6	3 0	Crop.
IV.	All *kharíf* crops, or crops not above specified, ...	3 4	2 0	Crop.

By 'flow' is understood water which reaches the fields from distributaries above their level; and by 'lift,' water which must be raised by means of buckets or otherwise to the level of the fields.

The canal opened in 1830 with a debit against its capital account of £43,800. The following statement shows the financial position of the undertaking in 1875-76:—Outlay during the year, £12,273; outlay from date of opening to the end of the year, ordinary £218,293, extraordinary £13,450—total, £231,743. The revenue account in the same year yielded the following gross results:—Revenue during the year—direct income £59,248; increased land revenue, £46,857; total, £106,105: revenue from opening—direct income, £1,039,485; increased land revenue, £221,555; total, £1,261,040: working expenses—during the year, £23,027; from opening. £459,508. According to the principle of calculating profit and loss officially adopted, the net revenue in 1875-76 shows a return of 15·63 per cent. on capital, or including increased land revenue, a return of 35·25 per cent.

The following are the details of direct income for 1875-76:—Water-rates, £54,649; mill rents, £1145; canal plantations, £2869; miscellaneous, £585; total actual receipts, £59,248.

Jumna (*Jamuná*) **Canal, Western.**—An important irrigation work in Umballa (Ambálá), Karnál, Delhi, and Rohtak Districts, Punjab. Lat. 28° 54′ to 30° 13′ N., long. 76° 35′ to 77° 26′ E. It takes its supply of water from the Jumna at Háthni Kúnd, on its western bank, where the river debouches from the hills. One-third of the stream has already been carried off for the Eastern Jumna Canal, whose head stands 3½ miles higher up the channel. Nearly the whole river at Háthni Kúnd is diverted by artificial cuts and dams, first into the Budhi Jumna, and then into the Patrála torrent. The latter shortly joins the Sombh, and just below their junction, at Dádopur, a dam crosses the united stream and turns the whole body of water into the canal. These works have long been temporary in their character, but permanent masonry dams are now in course of construction. The first irrigation cut from the

Jumna was drawn about the middle of the 14th century by the Emperor Firoz Sháh Tughlak for the supply of his city of Hissár. The head-works probably coincided with those of the modern undertaking, and the alignment followed one or other of the natural channels intersecting the Jumna lowlands as far as Karnál. Thence a short excavation led into a line of drainage connected with the Chutang, whose bed may still be traced to its junction with the Ghaggar. The old canal appears to have terminated in a small masonry tank a little beyond Hissár; and the absence of distributaries or their remains along its course would seem to show that it was not employed for intermediate irrigation, but simply for the supply of the imperial grounds. Two hundred years later, the channel, which had silted up in the interim, was reopened by order of Akbar. About the year 1628, Alí Mardan Khán, the famous engineer of Sháh Jahán, took off a large branch for the purpose of bringing water to the new city of Delhi. This work must have been executed with considerable skill and at great cost.

Another branch was at the same time carried in the direction of Rohtak. During the decline of the Mughal empire, however, and the period of Síkh reaction, the canal gradually silted up once more, and, ceasing to flow about the middle of the 18th century, remained in disuse until after the introduction of British rule. In 1817, our Government undertook the restoration of the Delhi branch, and the water re-entered that city in 1820. The restoration of the Hissár branch followed in 1823-25, and during the succeeding year, irrigation commenced in Hissár District. The famine year of 1832-33, however, first roused the cultivators to a sense of its value. The total length of canal now open amounts to 405 miles, with an aggregate of 259 miles of distributing channels, besides private water-courses. From Dádopur to Karnál, the canal takes a winding course through the lowlands, by an old bed, parallel in the main to the Jumna. Six miles below Karnál, it passes south-westward through the high outer bank of the river valley by a cutting. At Rer, 14 miles below, the Delhi branch strikes off due south, traverses Delhi city, and terminates in a junction with the river. The Rohtak branch leaves the main line 11 miles farther on, and, passing Rohtak, loses itself in a sandy tract south of that town. The Butána branch strikes off 3½ miles below the Rohtak, and, dividing into two forks, ends after a course of 27 miles a little beyond Butána. The main line continues along Firoz Sháh's alignment, in a tortuous channel, till it meets the Chutang Nadi, whose bed it utilises for the remainder of its course. Flowing south-westward as far as Hánsi, and then slightly northward to Hissár, it divides into two branches, one of them artificial, and finally ends in the sands beyond the British frontier. After very heavy seasons, a small quantity of water finds its way to the Ghaggar. The following statement shows the area

irrigated during the ten years ending 1873:—1863-64, 351,537 acres; 1864-65, 434,964 acres; 1865-66, 397,963 acres; 1866-67, 447,171 acres; 1867-68, 331,037 acres; 1868-69, 486,878 acres; 1869-70, 496,542 acres; 1870-71, 472,404 acres; 1871-72, 444,385 acres; 1872-73, 351,820 acres. The total capital outlay of the British Government upon this canal up to the end of 1872-73 amounted to £311,693. No data exists upon which an estimate of its original cost may be based. The following table exhibits the financial state of the undertaking for three years, ending 1872-73:—

Year.	Gross Income.		Working Expenses.	Profit.		Percentage upon Capital at the beginning of the Year.	
	Direct.	Direct with Indirect.		Direct.	Direct with Indirect.	Direct.	Direct with Indirect.
	£	£	£	£	£		
1870-71	118,637	155,893	34,950	83,687	120,943	32·22	46·55
1871-72	113,095	150,352	40,687	72,408	109,664	26·22	39·71
1872-73	95,361	132,618	40,117	55,244	92,500	18·53	31·04

The indirect revenue represents the increase in the receipts from the land tax, in consequence of the benefits derived from irrigation. The works for the restored canal system above described, as based on the old native works, were begun by Captain Blane and carried out by Major John Colvin. A costly work is now being carried out in the reformation of the upper section of the canal.

Junágarh.—Native State within the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, in the Province of Guzerat (Gujarát), Bombay. Lat. 20° 48′ to 21° 40′ N., long. 69° 55′ to 71° 35′ E. Estimated area, 3800 square miles; pop. (1872), 380,921; number of villages, 890; estimated gross revenue, £200,000. The only elevation rising above the general level of the plain is the Girnár group of hills, the highest peak of which is about 3500 feet above sea level. There is also a densely wooded tract called the Gir, hilly in some parts, but in others so low as to be liable to floods during the rainy season. The soil is generally black, but in certain spots the lighter varieties are found. Irrigation is commonly practised by means of water brought in canals, or drawn from wells by the Persian wheel and the leathern bag. The climate is upon the whole healthy, though, except on the Girnár Hill, the heat is excessive from the beginning of April to the middle of July. Fever and dysentery are the prevailing diseases. Stone exists suited for building purposes. The agricultural products comprise—cotton, shipped in considerable quantities from the port of Veráwal to Bombay; wheat;

the ordinary varieties of pulse and millet; oil-seeds; and sugar-cane, both the indigenous and Mauritius varieties. The manufactured articles are oil and coarse cotton cloth. The coast line is well supplied with fair-weather harbours, suited for native craft; of these the chief are Veráwal, Nawa-bandar, and Sutraporá. The only metalled road runs from Veráwal to Junágarh town, a distance of about 50 miles. The ordinary country tracks serve in the fair season for the passage of carts, pack-bullocks, and horses. There are 34 schools, with 1960 pupils. Places of interest include—the sacred mountain of GIRNAR, crowned with religious buildings of the Jains; the port of VERAWAL; and the ruined temple of SOMNATH. Junágarh ranks as a first-class State among the many petty States of Káthiáwár. Its ruler first entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. The present (1875) chief, who is entitled to a salute of 11 guns, is thirty-eight years of age. His name is Mohobat Khánjí, and his title, Nawáb of Junágarh. He is eighth in succession from Sher Khán Bábi, the founder of the family. He pays to the British Government and the Gáekwár of Baroda a yearly tribute of £7060, and maintains a military force of 2682 men. He holds a *sanad* authorizing adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. He has power of life and death over all except British subjects. Until 1476 A.D., when it was conquered by Sultán Muhammad Begará of Ahmedábád, Junágarh was a Rájput State, ruled by chiefs of the Churásumá tribe. During the reign of the Emperor Akbar, it became a dependency of the Court of Delhi, under the immediate authority of the Mughal Viceroy of Guzerat. About 1735 A.D., when the representative of the Mughals had lost his authority in Guzerat, Sher Khán Bábi, a soldier of fortune under the viceroy, expelled the Mughal governor and established his own rule. Sher Khán's son, Salábat Khán, appointed his heir chief of Junágarh, assigning to his younger sons the lands of Bántwá. Though himself tributary to the Gáekwár of Baroda and the British Government, the Nawáb of Junágarh receives yearly contributions, called *zortalabi*, from a large number of the petty chiefs in Káthiáwár. This levy, which is collected and paid to the Nawáb by British officers of the Káthiáwár Agency, is a relic of the days of Muhammadan supremacy.

Junágarh.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Káthiáwár, in political connection with the Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 31′ N., long. 70° 36′ 30″ E.; 60 miles south-west of Rájkot. Pop. (1872), 20,025. The town is fortified.

Junapadar.—One of the petty States in Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £55; and tribute of £4 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to Junágarh.

Jungle Maháls.—Formerly a Western District of Lower Bengal. The Jungle Mahális was originally a vague term applied in the last century to the British possessions and semi-independent chiefdoms lying between the regular Districts of Bírbhúm, Bardwán, and Bankurá, and the hill country of Chutiá Nágpur. As the administration became more precise, inconvenience arose from the vagueness of the jurisdiction, the stoppage of writs, etc. Accordingly Regulation XVIII. of 1805 erected the Jungle Mahális into a distinctly defined District, consisting of 15 *parganás* or *mahális* from Bírbhúm District (including Pachete), 3 from Bardwán (including most of Bishnupur), and 5 from Midnapur (including Mánbhúm and Barábhúm). The separate District of the Jungle Mahális was abolished by Regulation XIII. of 1833, and the territory redistributed among the adjoining Districts. It is now comprised within the western parts of Bírbhúm and the Santál Parganás, Bankurá and Midnapur Districts, and within the eastern Districts of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, especially Mánbhúm. The tract lies between lat. 21° 51′ 30″ and 22° 48′ 30″ N., and long. 86° 36′ and 87° 16′ E. Regulation XVIII. of 1805 affords an interesting illustration of the elaborate rules and details involved in the erection of a separate jurisdiction under the Company.

Junnar.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Poona District, Bombay. Lat. 19° 12′ 30″ N., long. 73° 58′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 10,298; municipal revenue (1874-75), £450; rate of taxation, 10½d. per head. Junnar contains a sub-judge's court, post office and dispensary. Though fallen in size and importance since the time of Muhammadan rule, and by the subsequent transfer of the seat of government to Poona under the Marhattás, Junnar is still a place of considerable note, being the chief market of the northern part of the District, and a depôt for the grain and merchandise passing to the Konkan by the Nánághát. It was formerly celebrated for the manufacture of paper, but the low rates at which the European article is now sold have almost driven native paper out of the market. The fort of Junnar, which is often noticed in Marhattá annals, was built by Malik-ul-Tujjár in 1436. In May 1557, Sivají surprised and plundered the town, carrying off about £100,000 in specie, besides other valuable spoil. About a mile and a half south-west of the town of Junnar is the hill fort of Sivner, granted in 1599 to the grandfather of Sivají, who is said to have been born here in 1627. During the turbulent times of Marhattá warfare this fort was often taken and retaken, and once, in 1670, the forces of Sivají himself were beaten back by its Mughal garrison. Besides fine gates and solid fortifications, it is celebrated for its deep springs. They rise in pillared pools of great depth, supposed to be coeval with the series of Buddhist caves which pierce the lower portion of the scarp.

Junoná.—Ancient village in Chánda District, Central Provinces. Lat. 19° 55′ 30″ N., long. 79° 26′ E.; 6 miles north of Ballálpur, and perhaps connected with it when Ballálpur was the Gond capital of Chánda. Possesses a fine tank, on the stone embankment of which stands the remains of a palace; and in its rear are traces of a wall 4 miles long. An elaborate system of under-channels, now imperfect, communicates with the tank.

Jutogh.—Small military station in Simla District, Punjab; situated on the top of a lofty and steep hill, a few miles from the town of Simla. The quarters of the mule batteries of mountain artillery.

K

Kabadak (or *Kapotáksha*, 'Dove's Eye').—River of Bengal. A deltaic distributary of the Mátábhángá, branching off from that river near Chándpur, in Nadiyá District, whence it flows a winding easterly course for a few miles, after which it turns southwards, marking the boundary between Nadiyá and the Twenty-four Parganás on the one hand and Jessor. Five miles east of Asásuní in the Twenty-four Parganás, it is joined by the Marichháp Gáng, which communicates with the series of boat passages and canals from Calcutta; and 2 miles below this junction, it sends off the Chándkhálí *khál* eastwards into Jessor District, continuing the boat passage towards Khulná, Dacca, etc. Farther to the south, in lat. 22° 13′ 30″ N., and long. 89° 20′ E., the Kabadak unites with the Kholpetuá, and the combined stream then takes the successive names of the Pangásí, Bára Pángá, Namgad Samudra, and near the sea, Malanchá, under which name it falls into the Bay of Bengal.

Ka-baing.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the left bank of the Nga-won river. Pop. (1876), 5340; gross revenue, £946.

Kábar.—Lake or marsh in Monghyr District, Bengal, lying between 25° 35′ 30″ and 25° 39′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 9′ and 86° 13′ E. long. The chief of a chain of marshes running along the north of the District, with high and abrupt banks, which seem to indicate that they owe their origin to a change of course in the Ganges or Gandak. They are annually filled by the floods of these rivers, and abound in crocodiles, fish, and wild-fowl.

Kabbal-durga.—Conical hill in Mysore District, Mysore State, in the watershed between the Shimsha and Arkavati rivers. Lat. 12° 30′ N., long. 77° 22′ E. It is fortified, and accessible only on one side by narrow steps hewn in the rock. Used as a penal settlement under the Hindu and Musalmán dynasties, 'where the insalubrity of the climate

was mercifully added to the unwholesome water to shorten the sufferings of State prisoners.' It was dismantled and abandoned in 1864. The name of Jaffarábád, given by Haidar Alí, is now forgotten.

Kabbani.—River of Mysore and Madras.—*See* KAPINI.

Ka-beng.—Revenue circle in Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated to the north of the river Tenasserim. Pop. (1876), 3277; land revenue, £525; capitation tax, £201.

Kabrái.—Town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 2641. Situated on the banks of the Brahm Tál, an extensive tank, now much silted up, but once a fine sheet of water, the construction of which is attributed to the Chandel Rájá Babrahm. Numerous ancient temples and other architectural remains line its banks.

Kábul (*Kábal?*).—Province of Afghánistán, bounded on the north-west by the Koh-í-Bába; on the north by the Hindu Kush; on the north-east by the Panjsher river; on the east by the Suláimán range; on the south it is bounded by the Safed Koh and Ghazní; and on the west by the hill country of the Hazáras. The following articles on the Province, city, and river of Kábul are condensed from Lieutenant-Colonel C. M. Macgregor's Account (1871):—

The Province of Kábul is mountainous, but contains many rich arable valleys along the base of the hills. Wheat is the chief product, and after it barley. The poorest classes consume a considerable proportion of barley and pease in their food. There are none so poor but that they occasionally indulge in animal food, and the rich in a great measure subsist on it. Corn is imported from as far as the environs of Ghazní. Rice is brought from Upper Bangash, Jalálábád, Lúghmán, and even Kúnar; in a dear year corn is sometimes brought from Bámián in small quantities. On the whole, however, the quantity of grain annually imported into the valley does not bear a great proportion to that produced in it, and provisions are seldom dear. In the valleys a good deal of wood is cultivated—willows and sycamores. In Kohistán there is abundance of timber. The orchards of Kábul, which are very numerous, are chiefly in the Koh Dáman; and in it the valley of Istálif is celebrated for the excellence and profusion of its fruits, and also for its picturesque beauties. The chief pasturage is in Logar, and on the south, as also towards Ghorband. The Division of Bútkhák is that in which agriculture is most pursued. In the whole valley the watered lands much exceed the unwatered, but in the southern skirts there are some small spaces in which the reverse is true. Fodder is plentiful in Kábul and most parts of the valley; artificial grasses constitute a considerable part of it in those quarters where pasturage is much pursued. A part of the population live in tents in summer, but otherwise houses are used, and the most common kind is the flat-roofed.

The chief stock is in cows, except where pasturage is followed, and there sheep are a more important object. A considerable trade is carried on by the Kábulís, especially with Turkistán and Hindustán. The villages are various sized, and on an average contain 150 families; they are not fortified, but invariably contain small castles or private forts of contemptible strength. There are few wastes or spaces ill supplied with water in the whole province; such as do exist are towards the south and the north-west limits. With respect to carriage, bullocks are chiefly used within the valley; those who trade to Khorasán employ a majority of camels. Goods taken into the Hazára country are carried on mules and ponies. The Ghilzáis, who trade to Turkistán by the road of Bámián, use camels. In the trade to the east, including all quarters, equal use is probably made of camels, mules, and ponies. The revenue of Kábul amounts to £180,000. Its military force is greater than any among the Afgháns. The country is by nature strong, though it has good roads through it.

Kábul (*Kábal*).—The capital city of Afghánistán; situated between the rivers Kábul and Logar near their junction, 88 miles from Ghazní, 229 miles from Khilát-í-Ghilzai, 318 miles from Kandahár, 103 miles from Jalalábád, and 190 miles from Pesháwar. Lat. 34° 30′ N., long. 69° 5′ E.

Topography.—The city of Kábul is situated at the west extremity of a spacious plain, in an angle formed by the approach of two inferior ridges, the Koh Takht Sháh and the Koh Khoja Safar. With the exception of a suburb, it lies on the right bank of the Kábul river. It is about 3 miles in circumference. To the east and south-east is the Bálá Hissár, or citadel. There are no walls round the city at the present time, though, formerly, it was encircled by walls constructed partly of burnt bricks and partly of mud. Their indications may be traced in many places, most abundantly in the east quarter. The space occupied by them being largely filled, even now, with gardens, does not contain above 5000 houses; anciently it may be presumed to have comprised a lower number. Seven gates allowed ingress and egress to and from the old city: the Darwázas Lahorí, Sirdár, Pet, Deh Afghánán, Deh Mazang, Guzar Gáh, and Jabr. Of these, the Darwázas Lahorí and Sirdár are the only ones now standing, being built of deeply coloured kiln-burnt bricks. That of Jabr was removed many years since. The sites of those no longer existing, besides being well known, are the stations of officers appointed to collect the town duties on the necessaries of life brought in from the country. Some of the names by which the gates are now known, or remembered, would seem to have replaced more ancient ones. The houses of Kábul are but slightly and indifferently built, generally of mud and unburnt bricks. The few of burnt brick are those of old standing. Their general want of substantiality does not

militate against their being conveniently arranged within, as many of them are, particularly those built by the Shiás in Chandol and other quarters. The city is divided into quarters (*mahalas*), and these again are separated into sections (*kúchas*). The latter are enclosed and entered by small gates. On occasions of war or tumult, the entrance gates are built up, and the city contains as many different fortresses as there are sections in it. This means of defence is called 'Kúchabandí.' It must be obvious that an insecure state of society has induced this precautionary mode of arrangement in the building of the city. The necessity to adopt it has occasioned the narrow and inconvenient passages of communication, or streets, if they must be so called, which intersect the several sections. The principal *bázárs* of the city are independent of the sections, and extend generally in straight lines. There are no public buildings of any moment in the city. The mosques, or places of worship, are far from being splendid edifices, although many are spacious and commodious; convenience and utility, rather than specious external appearance, has been sought for in their construction. There is but one college, and this without endowment or scholars. There are some 14 or 15 *saráis* or *karávansaráis* for the accommodation of foreign merchants and traders, named sometimes after their founders, as the Sarái Zirdád, the Sarái Muhammad Rúmí, etc., sometimes after the place whose traders in preference frequent it, as the Sarái Kandahárí, etc. These structures will bear no comparison with the elegant and commodious buildings of the same kind so numerous in the cities and country of Persia. *Hammams* or public baths, being indispensable appendages to a Muhammadan city, are in some number, but they are deficient in the matter of cleanliness. The approach to many of them is announced by an unwelcome odour, arising from the offensive fuel employed to heat them. Of the several *bázárs* of the city, the two principal, running irregularly parallel to each other, are the Shor *bázár*, and the *bázár* of the Darwáza Lahorí. The former, to the south, extends east and west from the Bálá Hissár Páín to the Zíárat Bába Khúdí, a distance of little more than three-quarters of a mile. The latter, stretching from the Darwáza Lahorí, terminates at the Chabútra, at which point there is a street to the south, called Chob Farosh or the wood market, communicating with the western extremity of the Shor *bázár*. To the north, another street leads from the Chabútra to the Kishtí. The western portion of the *bázár* Darwáza Lahorí is occupied by the Chár Cháta, or four covered arcades, the most magnificent of the Kábul *bázárs*, of which the inhabitants are justly proud. The structure is inscribed to Alí Mardán Khán, whose name is immortal in these countries, from the many visible testimonies to his public spirit extant in various forms. It was handsomely constructed and highly embellished with paintings. The four

covered arcades, of equal length and dimensions, are separated from each other by square open areas, originally provided with wells and fountains. These were judicious improvements on the plan in vogue throughout Persia, where the covered *bázárs*, extending in some of the larger cities for above 2 miles, not only exclude the rays of the sun, but completely prevent the free circulation of air, producing thereby close and oppressive and, it may be presumed, unhealthy atmospheres. The shops of the Chár Cháta are now tenanted by retail vendors of manufactured goods, whether of wool, cotton, or silk. Before the shops are what may be called counters, on which sit, with their wares displayed, silk-mercers, makers of caps, shoes, etc., and money-changers, with their heaps of copper monies before them. Beneath the counters are stalls; and as they exactly resemble the cobblers' stalls of London in situation and appearance, so are they generally occupied by the same class of craftsman. In Kábul, as in other places, all traffic is transacted through the medium of the broker. Besides the shopkeepers, or fixed tradesmen, a vast number of itinerant traders parade the *bázárs;* it is probable that the cries of Kábul equal in variety those of London. Inclusive of the Bálá Hissár, the number of houses in Kábul is about 9000, of which nearly one-half are occupied by Shiá families. The population may, therefore, be computed at something between fifty and sixty thousand. In the summer season, from the influx of merchants and people from all parts of the country, the city is very densely inhabited; and this pressure of strangers explains the crowds and bustle to be witnessed in the *bázárs*, with the great proportion of itinerant traders in cooked provisions, and the necessaries of life, who may be said to infest the streets. The appearance of Kábul as a city has little to recommend it beyond the interest conferred by the surrounding scenery. It is best approached, and, indeed, can only be seen, from the east. In that direction the traveller catches his first view from the lower countries at the crest of the Pass of Lataband. Formerly a canopied apartment of the palace of Kábul was cased in copper gilt, which, besides being very ornamental, had a conspicuous effect in the obscure and indistinct mass presented by the city from the Kotal, or crest of the Pass. Across the river which flows through Kábul, so far as the actual city is concerned, there can be said to be only one bridge, viz. the Púl Kishtí (the brick bridge). It is in fact a substantial structure, however ill kept in repair, of mixed brickwork and masonry. It leads directly into the busy parts of the city, where the custom-house, corn-market, the covered arcades, and the principal *bázárs* are found. At a little distance east of it is the so-called Púl Nawa, or the canoe bridge, composed of the hollowed trunks of trees joined to each other. It yields a tremulous passage to pedestrians who choose to venture over it, and connects the quarters Bágh Alí Mardán Khán

and Morád Kháni. To the west, at the gorge between the two hills through which the river enters upon the city, is the fortified bridge of Sirdár Jahán Khán. This is sometimes called the bridge of Nasír Khán, and is probably due to the governor so named who flourished at the epoch of Nadir Sháh's invasion. It is believed that he was one of the dignitaries who connected with this bridge the lines of fortifications which he threw over the hills; and he most likely built the parapet wall which fringes the western or exterior face of the bridge. Between this structure and the Púl Kishtí was anciently a bridge connecting Chandol, on the southern side of the stream, with the Indarábí quarter on the opposite side. It has disappeared, but the Nawáb Jabr Khán at the time of Masson's visit contemplated its replacement. Beyond the Púl Nawa, and altogether without the city, is another once substantial bridge thrown across the stream, said to owe its origin to Bábar. It became injured through age and neglect; but being on the road from the palace of the Bála Hissár to the royal gardens, it was necessary to repair it; and at length, in the reign of Zamán Sháh, it was restored by the governor of the city, Sirdár Jahán Nasír Khán, whose name it yet bears. It has, however, again become dilapidated. The river has yet another bridge traversing it west of the fortified bridge at the gorge of the two hills, and parallel to the tomb of the celebrated Bábar. It is a substantial erection, and its date is probably that of the tomb and its appendages, of which it may be considered one. The river has, therefore, in Kábul and the immediate vicinity 4 permanent bridges crossing it. The canoe bridge is not entitled to be included, being little more important than a plank placed across a rivulet. Besides these bridges, the river has no other, either to the east or west of them, in the upper part of its course being easily fordable, and soon terminating its lower section by joining with the river of Logar.

Inhabitants, etc.—The Emperor Bábar boasts of the commercial importance of Kábul, and the consequent resort to it of the merchants of all countries, and the display in its markets of the fabrics and produce of all climes. The eminent advantage possessed by Kábul is that of locality. This is conferred by nature; and so long as the present conformation of hill and plain endures, the city will preserve and enjoy it. There has always been a commercial communication between India and the regions of Turkistán. Kábul, happily situated at the gorge of the nearest and most practicable passes connecting the two countries, will always profit by the intercourse between them. The presence of the court, and of a comparatively large military force, not a little contributes to the bustle and activity to be observed in the city. It also imparts life and vigour to many professions and crafts engaged in the preparation of warlike instruments and necessaries. As

a class, the artisans, while not inexpert and perfectly competent to meet the wants of their customers, do not excel. There is not an article made or wrought in Kábul which is not surpassed by specimens from other countries. It is probable that many of the trades did not exist before the foundation of the monarchy, and they should, perhaps, be even now considered in a state of progression, a remark perhaps applicable to the whole country. With respect to the trade of Kábul, it may be observed that there are six points within Afghánistán where duties on merchandise are levied, viz. Kábul, Ghazní, Bámián, Chárikár, Logar, and Jalálábád.

Kábul is abundantly supplied with water, which is generally of good quality. The river, on its entrance from the plain of Chár Deh, is beautifully transparent; but after a course of a few hundred yards, its waters are little used by the inhabitants of the city as a beverage, from a belief that their quality is impaired by the large quantities of clothes cleansed in the river preparatory to bleaching upon its banks. Parallel to the river, in the first part of its course, is the canal called Júí Sharín, whose water is esteemed excellent. The southern parts of the city are supplied with water from a canal called Bálá Júí, which is brought from the river at its entrance into the plain of Chár Deh, and being carried on the western face of the hill, Koh Takht Sháh, passes the sepulchre of Bábar, and thence winds around the same hill until it reaches the Bálá Hissár. Without the Bálá Hissár, to the east, flows a canal, the Júí Púl Mastán, whose water is held in high repute. It is derived from the river of Logar as it enters the plain of Shevakí, and has a course of about 5 miles, a length little inferior to that of the Bálá Júí. There are very many wells throughout the whole extent of the city, indeed numerous houses are provided with them; the same remarks apply to the Bálá Hissár. The waters of these are more or less esteemed, but are generally considered heavy, and decidedly inferior to river water undefiled. The monarchs were accustomed to have the water drunk by them brought from Shakar Dára, a distance of 9 miles; and experiments, testing its superiority over that of the neighbouring valleys of Ferzah, etc., are narrated. The existence of the marshy ground to the north is by no means beneficial to the health of the city; for it cannot fail to be remarked, that in those years when the accumulation of water is large, dangerous autumnal fevers prevail, and that the contrary happens under converse conditions. In cases of excessive rainfall, the ordinary causes of diminution, absorption and evaporation, are not sufficient to carry off or dissipate the mass, and the superfluity stagnates towards the close of autumn. The effluvia arising from this putrid collection are borne full upon the city by the prevailing winds, particularly by the northerly winds of Parwan, which incessantly rage at that time of the year, and sweep over the more noxious *chaman* of

Wazírábád and Bemarú. Still Kábul may not be considered an unhealthy city. Its disadvantages, besides those just noted, are—its situation, wedged in, as it were, between two hills, its confined streets and buildings, with the evils consequent upon them. In compensation, it has the benefits of a fine atmosphere, excellent water and provisions, with delightful environs. The range of thermometer at Kábul from the 6th to the end of August in 1839 was from 46° to 74° at 4 A.M., and at 3 P.M. from 72° to 96°; in September at 4 A.M. 50° to 64°, and at 3 P.M. 70° to 90°; from 1st to 14th October at 4 A.M. 30° to 56°, at 3 P.M. 64° to 92°.

The defences of Kábul have been carefully described in Colonel MacGregor's Report, but need not be detailed here. The city played an important part in the first Afghán war. On the 7th August 1839, Sháh Shujá entered Kábul as Amír, escorted by a British army. Throughout that year and the next, the British troops remained without hindrance. On the 2d November 1841, the citizens and Afghán soldiery broke out in rebellion against the Amír Sháh Shujá, and murdered him. On the 21st December, the English Resident, Sir William MacNaghten, was treacherously shot by Akbar Khán, at an interview for arranging the terms for the British troops withdrawing from the city. On the 6th January, our forces marched out under solemn guarantee of protection, — 4500 fighting men, with 12,000 followers. Their fate is well known; of all that number only one man, Dr. Brydon, reached Jalálábád, and 95 prisoners were subsequently recovered from the Afgháns. On the 15th September 1842, General Pollock, with his army of retribution, arrived at Kábul, took possession of the citadel (Bálá Hissár) without opposition, and the British forces remained there till 12th October, when the city was evacuated. Previous to the departure of the army, the great *bázár*, the Chár Chatah, was destroyed by gunpowder as a retribution for the murder of Sir William MacNaghten, and the indignities offered to his remains on this spot.

By the treaty of Gandamak, in May 1879, a British Resident was to be stationed at Kábul. (See AFGHANISTAN, vol. i. p. 41.) Accordingly, Major (afterwards Sir Louis) Cavagnari was appointed to this post, and was welcomed to the city with great apparent cordiality by the Amír Yákub Khán. Owing to intrigues which will probably never be unravelled, the fanatical party was allowed to gain head; and on the 3d September 1879, the British Residency was attacked by a rabble of towns-people and troops, and the British Resident and his escort murdered, after a valiant defence. In October 1879, an avenging force marched under General (now Sir Frederick) Roberts up the Kuram, and occupied Kábul. The Bálá Hissár, including the fort and palace, was partially dismantled; the Amír Yákub, whose complicity in the outrage on the Embassy was suspected, abdicated, and was removed to

India as a State prisoner; and the guilty city remained under British occupation for a year. A new Amír, Abdur Rahman Khán, was recognised, and the punitive purposes of the expedition having been accomplished, the British troops were withdrawn in August 1880. Among the memorable passages of the expedition were Sir Frederick Roberts' rapid advance with heavy artillery over the Shutargarten to avenge the massacre in the autumn of 1879, and his brilliant march from Kábul to break up the army under Ayúb Khán at Kandahár, in August 1880.

Kábul.—A river of Afghánistán, is believed to rise from a copious spring at Sar-i-Chasmah, lat. 34° 21′ N., long. 68° 20′ E., and elev. 8400 ft. But another source is said to be about 12 miles farther west, on the east declivity of the Unái ridge. In its course it is joined by many small tributaries from the south slopes of the Laghmán range. It is at first an inconsiderable stream, everywhere fordable for 60 miles as far as Kábul, at a short distance beyond which place it receives the river of Logar from the south, and thenceforward is a rapid river with a great volume of water. About 40 miles below Kábul, it receives from the north the Panjsher river; 15 miles farther, the Tagao; 20 miles below, the united streams of Alíngar and Alíshang; and 20 miles farther, at Bálábágh, the Súrkh-áb from the south. About 2 miles below Jalálábád, it is joined by a large river, the Kúnar. After all these accessions, the Kábul river becomes a large stream and unfordable. Flowing with great force, it hugs the north side of the Jalálábád valley until it enters the Mohamand Hills, when it presses towards the north base of the Kháibar range, and is confined between hills till it emerges into the Peshávar valley at Michní. Here it divides into two branches, called the Adúzái and the Nagúmán. The Adúzái, or north branch, receives in three branches the waters of the Swát river. The Nagúmán, or south branch, separates again into several smaller branches at Múki to rejoin again at Zakhi, where also it receives the Bárá river from the south, and then the two branches reunite at Dúobandí. Thence it flows 40 miles east-south-east, and falls into the Indus at Attock, after a course of 300 miles, in lat. 33° 55′ N., and long. 72° 16′ E. From Sar-i-Chasmah to Jalálábád, this river is of no value except for irrigation; but from Jalálábád to Dúobandí, it assumes an additional value by affording means of safe and generally rapid descent. For this purpose it is navigated by rafts of inflated skins. This mode of travelling is a good deal resorted to, especially when the Kháibar Pass is disturbed. It saves a distance of 10 marches, and may be traversed in 12 hours during the floods. From Dúobandí to Attock, the river is navigable for boats of 40 or 50 tons. As above stated, from Sar-i-Chasmah to Kábul it is everywhere fordable. Thence to Jalálábád it is fordable at a short distance above Jalálábád on the road to Lúghmán in dry

weather, and there are ferries at the village of Kutz, on the right bank. Opposite Jalálábád there is a difficult ford in April, and thence to Dúobandí the ferries at Goshta, Lalpúra, Abkhána, Daka, Prang (Adúzái branch), Khalíl Bandah (Nagúmán branch). Below Dúobandí are the following ferries:—(1) Nisata to Khalíl Bandah, from 2 to 6 boats. This is the principal ferry between Peshávar and Yúsafzái through Hashtnagar. (2) Dehri Zardád to Sháh Alam, 2 boats. This ferry is little frequented. (3) Khaishkí to Pírpái and Zakhel, 2 boats. This ferry is little frequented. (4) New Naoshahra to old Naoshahra. This is the largest ferry in connection with Yúsafzái. In the hot weather it employs from 6 to 8 boats. In the cold weather, and sometimes throughout the year, there is a bridge of boats below this ferry. (5) Pírsabak to Badrakái. This ferry has been closed of late years. (6) Misríbandah to Akora, 2 boats. This is the favourite ferry between the east portion of the Yúsafzái plain and the Khataks. (7) Jahángíra to Shaídoh, 2 boats. In case of need, 8 or 12 boats can be procured from Attock.—*See* also AFGHANISTAN.

Kachchh.—Native State, Bombay.—*See* CUTCH.

Kachchh, Runn. of—*See* CUTCH.

Kachhandan.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north and east by Mallánwán *parganá;* on the south by Bángarmau *parganá* of Unao District; and on the west by the District of Farrukhábád in the North-Western Provinces, the Ganges forming the boundary line. Originally in the possession of the Thatheras, who were expelled by some Chandel subjects of the King of Kanauj. First constituted a *parganá* about 350 years ago by Sher Sháh, who, on his proselytizing march from Jaunpur to Agra, compelled the inhabitants of several Chandel villages to apostatize. Their descendants now intermarry with the families of Ahbans, Ráikwárs, and Gohelwárs, who were converted to Islam at the same time. The *parganá* forms part of the *kachh* or moist low-lying country along the bank of the Ganges, as opposed to the *bángar* or dry upland tract away from the river; hence its name Kachhandan. Area, 47 square miles, of which 28 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £3378; average incidence, 4s. 11⅛d. per acre of cultivated area, or 2s. 3½d. per acre of total area. Staple products—barley, wheat, millet, rice, *bájra*, gram, *arhar*, sugar-cane of an inferior quality. Of the 34 villages comprising the *parganá*, 16 are owned by Hindu and 8 by Muhammadan Chandels. Of the remaining 10, Bráhmans hold 5; Káyasths, 2; and Panwárs, Ahírs, and Chamárs, 1 each. The prevailing tenure is that known as imperfect *pattidárí*, which obtains in 18 villages; 15 are *zamíndárí*, and only 1 *tálukdárí*. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 18,120; Musalmáns, 2339; total, 20,459, of whom 11,226 are males and 9233 females; average density of population, 435 per square mile. This *parganá* is intersected by two

unmetalled roads, and by cart tracks to three ferries on the Ganges. Owing to its liability to inundation, the climate is damp; and when floods are subsiding, fever is very prevalent.

Kachuá.—Village and police outpost station in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the Bhairab river between Khulná and Bágherhát. Contains a considerable *bázár*, and is one of three market-places established in the Sundarbans by Mr. Henckell in 1782. A *khál* or creek, crossed by a masonry bridge, divides the villages into two parts. The place probably derives its name from *kachu*, a species of yam, which is grown here in great quantities.

Kadaba.—*Táluk* in Túmkúr District, Mysore. Area, 508 square miles, of which 78 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 97,963, including 3610 Muhammadans, 176 Jains, and 52 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £5950, or 2s. 5d. per cultivated acre. Soil a red mould, shallow and gravelly.

Kadaba.—Village in Túmkúr District, Mysore; 18 miles south-west of Túmkúr. Lat. 13° 14′ 50″ N., long. 76° 53′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 1778, including a settlement of Srí Vaishnava Bráhmans. Boasts a mythical antiquity, its large tank, formed by a dam across the Shimshá river, being fabled to have been constructed by Ráma on his return from Lanka. The headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name have been transferred to Gubbi.

Ka-daing-tí (*-tee*).—Revenue circle in the Salwín (Salween) Hill Tracts, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 5576; land revenue, £249, derived chiefly from hill gardens; capitation tax, £221.

Kadalúr (*Kúdalúr*).—*Táluk* and town in South Arcot District, Madras.—*See* CUDDALORE.

Kadapa.—District, *táluk*, and town in Madras.—*See* CUDDAPAH.

Kadayanallúr.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 9° 5′ N., long. 77° 23′ E.; pop. (1871), 7010; number of houses, 1799. A trading town on the road to Travancore, by the Arian-kávu Pass.

Kadi (*Karí*).—Town in Baroda State, Guzerat, Bombay. Lat. 23° 17′ N., long. 72° 21′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 16,725.

Kádihátí.—Municipal town in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, on the Calcutta and Bárásat road. Lat. 22° 39′ 10″ N., long. 88° 29′ 48″ E. Pop. (1872), 5680,—namely, Hindus, 3851; Muhammadans, 1829; number of males, 2838, and of females, 2842,—dwelling in 1109 houses. Municipal income (1876-77), £132; expenditure, £221; rate of municipal taxation, 5¼d. per head. Town police force of 1 petty officer and 8 men; English school.

Kádipur.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision in Sultánpur District, Oudh, lying between 25° 58′ 30″ and 26° 23′ N. lat., and between 82° 9′ and 82° 44′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Akbarpur *tahsíl* of Faizábád (Fyzabad);

on the east by the District of Azamgarh in the North-Western Provinces, on the south by the Patti *tahsíl* of Partábgarh, and on the west by Sultánpur *tahsíl*. Area, 440 square miles, of which 229 are cultivated. Pop. (according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent changes of area), 234,707, of whom 221,521 are Hindus, and 13,186 Musalmáns; number of males, 123,064, and of females, 111,643. Number of villages or towns, 763; average density of population, 584 per square mile. The *tahsíl* comprises the 3 *parganás* of Chándá, Aldemau, and Surharpur.

Ka-do.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; opposite Maulmain, at the junction of the Gyaing, Attaran, and Salwín rivers. Pop. (1876), 3672; land revenue, £437; capitation tax, £369.

Ka-do. — Small town on the banks of the Gyaing, in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. The Government timber station at which all logs brought down the Salwín are collected, and the duty on them paid. Pop. (1877), 2232. Within the jurisdiction of the Judge and Magistrate of Maulmain.

Kádúr.—A District of Mysore, forming the south-western portion of the Nagar Division; lying between 13° 12′ and 13° 58′ N. lat., and between 75° 8′ and 76° 25′ E. long., and bounded on the west by the Western Gháts, which separate it from the District of Kanara in the Madras Presidency. Estimated area, 2294 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1871, 332,381 persons. The administrative headquarters are at CHIKMAGALUR, having been removed from Kadúr town in 1865.

Physical Aspects.—The larger portion of the District consists of the Malnád or hill country, which contains some of the wildest mountain scenery in Southern India. The frontier on the west is formed by the lofty chain of the Gháts, of which the highest peaks are the Kuduremukha (6215 feet), and the Meruti Gudda (5451 feet). The centre of the District is occupied by the horse-shoe range of the Bába Budans, which boasts the loftiest mountain in Mysore—Mulaingiri—rising to a height of 6317 feet above the sea. There are many other minor ranges; and the whole of the Malnád is broken into hills and valleys, which are alike covered with primeval forest, teeming with the characteristic fauna and flora of the tropics, and little disturbed by the invasion of man. The Maidán or plain country, lying towards the east, partakes of the general character of the Mysore plateau. The elevation slopes from 3400 to 2400 feet. The principal rivers of the District are the twin streams of the Tunga and the Bhadra, which rise near each other in the Gháts, and, after a long separation, unite to form the Tungabhadra, itself a tributary of the Kistna. The eastern portion is watered by the river system of the Vedavati. Where this river leaves the Bába Budan Mountains, it is embanked to form two extensive tanks, which irrigate

the lower valley. From all the rivers water is drawn off into irrigation channels by means of anicuts or weirs.

The valley lying beneath the amphitheatre formed by the Bába Budan Hills is the most fertile portion of the District. It commands an unfailing supply of water from the hill streams, and the soil is the famous 'black cotton-soil.' Among mineral products, iron is largely obtained and smelted along the foot of the hills, and corundum is found in certain localities. But the chief natural wealth of Kádúr lies in its forests, which contain inexhaustible supplies of the finest timber, and also furnish shelter for the coffee plantations. The highest mountains are precipitous, and bare of trees; but the slopes and the valleys are clothed with valuable timber, arranged in park-like clumps, between which stretch glades of luxuriant grass. Teak is especially abundant, and sandalwood is also found. About 78 square miles have been reserved as State forests, and trees are planted in avenues along the public roads. The eastern *táluks*, on the other hand, hardly possess sufficient wood for fuel. In the Malnád, wild animals are numerous. Wild elephants are occasionally seen, and bison abound. Beasts of prey include the tiger, panther, leopard, and bear; and the *shivanga* or hunting leopard is found. Wild hog are very destructive to the crops, especially to plantations of sugar-cane. Fish are abundant in both rivers and tanks, and are caught by rod and line, by nets, and in long conical traps of bamboo. At certain sacred spots in the rivers they are fed daily by the priests, and are so tame as to rise to the surface at a call.

History.—As containing the hallowed sources of the Tungabhadra, Kádúr District abounds with scenes associated with the legends of the *Rámáyana*. Sringeri or Rishya-sringa-giri, on the Tunga river, takes precedence of all other places in its claims to mythical antiquity. Here it was that the sage Rishya-sringa was born without a natural mother, by whose intervention alone could 'the horse sacrifice' be celebrated and Ráma himself be brought into the world. Here also, in historical times, was the home of Sankarácharya, the great Sivaite reformer of the 8th century; and here at the present day resides the *jagat-guru* or supreme high priest of the Smarta Bráhmans. The most ancient sites connected with local history are the ruins of Ratnápuri and of Saka-ráya-patná, both of which are described as the capitals of powerful kings before the rise of the Ballála dynasty. On the overthrow of the Ballálas by the Muhammadans, the Vijáyanagar empire established itself over all Southern India; but in this region, as in other outlying tracts, the government really fell into the hands of feudatory chiefs, who asserted all the attributes of independence. The three leading families in Kádúr were those of Karkala, Aigur, and Tarikere. Subsequently the greater part of the District was overrun

by the Ikkeri or Bednur *poligár* from the neighbouring District of Hassan, who was in his turn defeated in 1694 by the conquering Hindu Rájás of Mysore. It was not until 1763 that Haidar Alí finally incorporated the whole country in the Mysore dominions. In 1799, after the death of Tipú, Kádúr was restored to the Hindu kingdom then set up by the Marquis of Wellesley. But the memories of local independence were strong in this remote and wild country, and the abuses of the Bráhman officials provoked a general discontent both among the Lingáyats and the general body of the cultivators. In 1831, the people broke out into open insurrection, and found a natural leader in the representative of the old family of the Tarikere *poligárs*, who was also joined by a large number of Thugs or professional stranglers. The insurgents seized upon several forts, and proved themselves too strong for the native government. In the early months of 1831, the insurrection was suppressed by a British force; and the inquiry that followed led to the assumption by the British of the direct administration of the entire State of Mysore. Kádúr was formed into a separate District in 1863; and two years later, Chikmagalúr was fixed upon as the civil station in place of Kádúr town, though the District retains its original name.

Population.—In 1838, a report by Mr. Stokes estimated the population of the District, which was then much smaller in extent, at 145,394 persons; and a *khána-sumári* house enumeration in 1853-54 returned a total for the present area of 236,178. The regular Census of 1871 ascertained the number to be 332,381, showing a comparative increase of 88 per cent. in the interval of thirty-three years, and of 41 per cent. in the latter period of eighteen years, if the earlier estimates can be trusted. The area of the District is approximately taken at 2294 square miles, which yields an average of 145 persons per square mile, an average rising to 260 in the *táluk* of Kádúr. Classified according to sex, there are 169,564 males and 162,817 females; proportion of males, 51·01 per cent. There are, under 12 years of age, 60,684 boys and 59,928 girls; total, 120,612, or 36 per cent. of the District population. The occupation tables are scarcely trustworthy, but it may be mentioned that 69,462 persons are returned as connected with agriculture, 13,640 with manufacture and arts, and 23,686 as labourers, many of whom are engaged on the coffee plantations. The religious division of the people shows:—Hindus, 318,480, or 95·82 per cent.; Muhammadans, 12,017, or 3·62 per cent.; Jains, 1316, or ·39 per cent.; Christians, 568, or ·17 per cent. The Hindus are further subdivided according to the two great sects into 127,072 worshippers of Vishnu, and 191,408 worshippers of Siva. The Bráhmans number 16,707, almost exclusively belonging to the Smarta sect, whose headquarters are at the sacred village of Sringeri; those claiming the rank

of Kshattriyahood are returned at 4157, including 2674 Marhattás and only 226 Rájputs; the Vaisyas are poorly represented by 1718 persons, of whom 1157 are Komatis. Among inferior castes, the most numerous are—the Wokligas (58,032), agricultural labourers; and the Kurubas (31,699), shepherds. The Lingáyats, who have always been influential in this part of the country, number 34,747. Out-castes are returned at 57,382; wandering tribes, 12,785; wild tribes, 1454; Coorgs, 15. The Musalmáns, who muster strongest in the *táluk* of Lakwalli, are almost exclusively Dakhni Musalmáns of the Sunni sect; there are only 662 Shiás. Out of the total of 568 Christians, 56 are Europeans (mostly residing on the coffee plantations), and 47 are Eurasians, leaving 465 for the native converts. According to another principle of classification, there are 103 Protestants and 465 Roman Catholics.

The District contains 1980 primary (*asali*) populated towns and villages, with 900 houses of the better class or above £50 in value, and 62,137 houses of the inferior sort. As compared with the area and the population, these figures yield the following averages:—Villages per square mile, ·87; houses per square mile, 28; persons per village, 168; persons per house, 5·28. The only town in the District with more than 5000 inhabitants is TARIKERE, the residence of an old line of *poligárs*, of whom the last representative was executed for rebellion in 1834; its population is 5302 persons. CHIKMAGALUR, the present headquarters of the District, has only 2027 inhabitants; KADUR, the old civil station, 2733. There are altogether 5 municipalities in the District, with an aggregate municipal income, in 1874-75, of £1319. The most interesting sites in the District are to be found on the BABA BUDAN range of hills, where the primeval forest is now dotted with trim coffee plantations. The hills derive their name from a Musalmán saint, who is said to have first introduced the coffee plant into India from Mecca. His tomb, in a cave, is guarded by a Muhammadan custodian, and the same cave is also associated with Hindu legends. At Kalháti, on these hills, is the hot-weather retreat for the European officials from all the neighbouring Districts. The sacred village of SRINGERI, on the Tunga river, has already been referred to.

Agriculture.—The staple food crop of the District is rice, of which fourteen different varieties are enumerated. It is principally grown on the slopes of the Malnád or hill country, where the natural rainfall is sufficient, and in the river valleys, where the fields can be irrigated from tanks and artificial canals. There are altogether 8740 tanks in the District; and 115 anicuts or dams across the several rivers, irrigating an area of 4928 acres, with a revenue of £6128. The principal 'dry' crop is *rágí* (Cynosurus corocanus), which is preferred as food by the natives to rice as affording more sustenance. The areca-nut palm flourishes in the moist and sheltered valleys throughout the west. But the main source

of agricultural wealth in Kádúr is derived from coffee. The berry is locally stated to have been first introduced by the Muhammadan saint, Bába Budan, about two centuries ago, who planted it after his return from a pilgrimage to Mecca on the hills bearing his name, which are still the headquarters of the cultivation. European capital was not attracted to the enterprise until about 1840, but there are now 60,000 acres planted with coffee. The coffee zone extends over an area of about 1000 square miles, and about one-tenth of this is excellently adapted to the cultivation in respect of soil, aspect, and shade. The statistics for 1875 show a total of 12,376 plantations, owned by 22 Europeans and 4760 natives, with about forty-four million plants. Most native cultivators in this tract possess a few coffee plants at the back of their houses. Several attempts have been made to introduce the tea plant, but hitherto without success. Efforts to extend the growth of mulberry and of cotton have been equally unsuccessful. The cardamom grows wild in the Malnád, and its systematic cultivation has recently been undertaken by coffee-planters. There is a Government plantation of cinchona (the quinine plant) at Kalháti, on the Bába Budan Hills. The following agricultural statistics are merely approximate :—Out of a total area of 2294 square miles, only 377 square miles are returned as under cultivation, and 234 more as cultivable. There are under rice, 42,646 acres; wheat, 2500; other food grains, 70,000; oil-seeds, 3000; sugar-cane, 443; cotton, 300; tobacco, 6500; cocoa-nut and areca-nut, 7800; coffee, 60,000; tea, 2. The agricultural stock consists of 5924 carts, and 45,700 ploughs. The cattle of the District are generally small and of an inferior breed. The climate of the Malnád or hill country is very fatal to them, and buffaloes are bred on the plains to be imported into that tract. The returns show a total of 281,963 cows and bullocks, and 86,205 sheep and goats.

Manufactures, etc.—The chief articles of local manufacture are coarse cotton cloth, *kamblis* or rough blankets, oil and oil-cake. Jaggery is also largely made from sugar-cane in certain tracts, and there is a considerable production of iron. Arrack and other spirituous liquors are distilled. A certain amount of catechu or Terra japonica is made, and a little salt. The returns of manufacturing stock show 2000 weaving looms and 115 oilmills.

The statistics of trade appear to be more accurately kept than in other Districts of Mysore. The total of the annual exports is valued at £297,000, chiefly destined for Davangere and Bangalore; the imports are valued at £217,000, of which the greater part comes from Bangalore and Hassan. The external trade passes by 31 recognised *kanaves* or passes, the most frequented being those of Biranhalli and Jodikatte for wheeled carts, and Tallagudde and Talmakki for

pack-bullocks. A considerable proportion of commodities is still conveyed on the heads of coolies. The interchange of goods between the hills and plain portions of the District is very brisk. It is estimated that £124,800 worth of dry grains, fine rice, piece-goods, *kamblis*, etc. annually passes along five *kanaves* leading from the Maidán into the Malnád; and that £230,000 worth of paddy, areca-nut, cardamoms, pepper, coffee, etc. is carried in the reverse direction. The largest weekly markets are held at the villages of Devarayapete and Pura; the most frequented annual fair is connected with the *Nava-ratri* at Sringeri. The total length of imperial roads in the District is 163 miles, maintained at an annual cost of £2825; of District roads, 161 miles, costing £602.

Administration.—In 1873-74, the total revenue of Kádúr District, excluding forests, education, and public works, amounted to £94,316. The chief items were—land revenue, £59,103; *sáyar* or customs, £20,806; *ábkárí* or excise, £6247. The District is divided into 5 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, which have undergone some alteration since the Census of 1871; and these are again subdivided into 33 *hoblis* or minor fiscal units. In 1870-71, the total number of estates on the register was 62,462. During 1874, the average daily prison population of the District jail was 25·42, and of the *táluk* lock-ups, 16·26; total, 41·68, of whom 3·50 were women, showing 1 person in jail to every 8107 of the population. In the same year, the District police numbered 39 officers and 260 men, and the municipal police, 15 men; total, 314 men of all ranks, maintained at an aggregate cost of £3005. These figures show 1 policeman to every 7 square miles of area or to every 1058 persons of the population, the cost being £9, 11s. 4d. per square mile and 2d. per head of population. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government in 1874 was 176, attended by 3027 pupils, being 1 school to every 13·03 square miles, and 9 pupils to every thousand of the population. In addition, there were 121 unaided schools with 1235 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—Kádúr District offers a great variety of climate. At the station of Chikmagalúr, the mean annual temperature is about 78° F.; during the two years 1873-74, the maximum recorded was 93° in the month of March, the minimum was 69° F. in February. The heat here would often be excessive, if it were not for the breezes that blow from the mountains on the west and the north. The east winds, on the other hand, exercise an unhealthy influence, and it has been found necessary to shelter the town with a wide belt of trees. In the Malnád, the temperature falls much lower, and the cold at night about Christmas-time is very sharp. The rainfall of the District is equally variable, owing to the same geographical causes. The average at Chikmagalúr during the four years ending 1874 was only 36 inches;

whereas at certain coffee plantations in the Malnád from 100 to 170 inches have been registered in a single year.

In the Malnád, malarious or jungle fevers are always prevalent at certain seasons of the year, from which neither Europeans nor natives are exempt. In the plains, the violent east winds are dreaded as promoting disease. The vital statistics are far from trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that, out of the total of 4402 deaths reported in 1872, 2537 were assigned to fevers, 824 to bowel complaints, 415 to small-pox, and 14 to snake-bite and wild beasts. In 1874, the dispensary at Chikmagalúr was attended by 174 in-patients, of whom 14, or 80·46 per thousand, died; the out-patients numbered 6122.

Kádúr (*'Elk Town'*).—Municipal village in Kádúr District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 33′ N., long. 76° 2′ 45″ E.; pop. (1871), 2733; municipal revenue (1874-75), £43; rate of taxation, 4d. per head. Inscriptions and other monuments show that there was a settlement of Jains here in the 10th century. Subsequently a fort was built by a local chieftain. In 1863, the District of Kádúr was formed, but two years afterwards the headquarters were removed to Chikmagalúr. In 1875, the town also ceased to be the headquarters of a *táluk*, being superseded by Banavar.

Kafára.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh; situated east of the Dahraura river, on the high bank of an ancient channel of the stream. Soil very fertile and drainage good. Pop. (1869), 2467, of whom 2343 are Hindus and 124 Muhammadans.

Káfirkot.—Range of hills in Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab.—*See* KHISOR HILLS.

Káfirkot.—Ruins in Bannu District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 30′ 15″ N., long. 71° 22′ 45″ E. Those known as Til Káfirkot or Rájá-sír-kot are situated a few miles to the south of the point where the Kúram river joins the Indus, upon a spur of the KHISOR HILLS, and consist of immense blocks of smoothly chiselled stone, with remains of Hindu temples or sanctuaries. The carvings represent idols and other designs, and retain their freshness to a considerable degree. The ruin specially known as Káfirkot lies on the left bank of the Indus, and is similar in character to the others, but smaller and less perfectly preserved.

Kágal.—Native State in the centre of the British Political Agency of Kolhápur, Bombay. Area, 129 square miles; pop. (1872), 42,045. Watered by the Dudhganga and Vedganga rivers. Annual gross revenue, £15,949. Pays a yearly tribute of £200 to Kolhápur, of which it is the most important feudatory. The present chief (1877), Jáya Sinh Ráo Ghátge Sarjaráo Warzárat Mááb, a Hindu of the Marhattá caste, is grandson by adoption of Hindu Ráo, who held a leading position at Gwalior eighty years ago, and whose brother, by means of

his influence at the court of Sindhia, acquired in 1800 a grant of Kágal from the Kolhápur chief. His family has no *sanad* authorizing adoption; succession follows the rule of primogeniture. Retinue, 41 armed police and militia; schools, 7, with 489 pupils.

Kágal.—Capital of Kágal State, Bombay. Lat. 16° 34′ N., long. 74° 20′ 30″ E.; 10 miles south-east of Kolhápur. Pop. (1872), 5911.

Ka-gnyeng-daing.—Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The country is mountainous, containing the eastern slopes of the Arakan Yomas; towards the east, the surface becomes level and suitable for rice cultivation. Among timber trees, the *pyeng-ma*, *pyeng-gado*, *reng-daik* (Dalbergia cultrata), and *ka-gnyeng* abound. Pop. (1876), 3238; gross revenue, £702.

Kaha (or *Kaher*).—One of the mouths of the INDUS, Sind, by which the Mutni, formerly a large offset of the Sita branch of the river, entered the sea (lat. 23° 56′ N., long. 67° 35′ E.—Thornton); but now a mere creek.

Kahan (or *Gahan*).—River or torrent in Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab; rises in the Salt range, on the southern side of its northern spur, and, running nearly due east, passes through the southern or Tilla spur near Rohtás, falling into the Jhelum about 2 miles above Jhelum city.

Kahlgáon.—Town in Bhágalpur District, Bengal.—*See* COLGONG.

Kahlúr (*Biláspur*).—One of the Hill States under the political superintendence of the Punjab Government, lying between 31° 12′ 30″ and 31° 35′ 45″ N. lat., and between 76° 26′ and 76° 58′ E. long. Area, 448 square miles; estimated pop. (1876), 60,000. The Gurkhás, who had overrun the country at the beginning of the present century, were driven out by the British in 1815, and the Rájá was reinstated in his possessions of Biláspur. In 1847-48, when the Punjab was conquered, the Rájá was confirmed in possession of the territory of Kahlúr, on the right bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), which he had previously held on terms of allegiance and payment of tribute to the Síkhs. The British Government waived its right to tribute, but required the Rájá to abolish transit duties in his dominions. In acknowledgment of his services during the Mutiny, the Rájá received a dress of honour of the value of £500, and a salute of 7 guns. The present Rájá, Hira Chánd, a Rájput by caste, was born about 1835. Revenue about £10,000. Principal products—opium and grain; manufacture of woollen goods.

Kahnuwán.—Swampy lake (*jhíl*) in Gurdáspur District, Punjab, lying south-west of Gurdáspur town, below the high bank of the Beas (Biás), and evidently marking an ancient course of that river. It is 9 miles in length, by 2000 feet in width; depth from 12 to 20 feet in the deepest parts. In the centre stands a pavilion, erected by Mahárájá Sher Sinh. Rice and *singhára* are cultivated in the shallows. A dam, 13

miles in length, erected to prevent flooding, has saved large portions of the surrounding country from inundation. Steps have been taken with success for draining the swampy area, by which 1100 acres of marsh land have already been reclaimed, and the process still continues at the rate of about 150 acres yearly. The lake formerly swelled to much larger dimensions, but the dam now confines the water of the Beas to a narrower bed.

Kahror.—Municipal town in Múltán (Mooltan) District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 37′ N., long. 71° 57′ 41″ E.; pop. (1868), 5069, consisting of 2874 Hindus, 2181 Muhammadans, 2 Síkhs, 4 Christians, and 8 'others.' Situated on an old bed of the Beas (Biás), known as the Bhatiári *nála*, about 4 miles from the present right bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj). Ancient town, the legendary scene of Vikramáditya's victory over the Saka invaders in the 1st century B.C. Captured by Chach after the fall of Múltán in the 7th century. Important centre for local trade, chiefly with Múltán and Baháwalpur. Police station, branch dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £285, or 1s. 2¾d. per head of population (4661) within municipal limits.

Káhúta.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, lying between 33° 19′ and 33° 47′ N. lat., and between 73° 18′ and 73° 41′ E. long., in the tract commonly known as the Murree (Marri) Hills.

Kaidala.—Village in Túmkúr District, Mysore; 3 miles south of Túmkúr. Lat. 13° 18′ N., long. 77° 8′ E.; pop. (1871), 534. Said to have been formerly called Krida-pura, and the capital of a powerful State; also regarded as the birthplace of Jáya-náchári, the great architect and sculptor, to whom all the temple carving in Mysore is attributed. The two temples at Kaidala, now in ruins, belong to the period of the Ballála dynasty (10th to 14th centuries).

Kailáshahr.—Subdivision of Hill Tipperah State, Bengal. Pop. (1874), 5694.

Kailáshahr.—Village in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal. Prettily situated at the foot of a low range of hills. Lat. 24° 19′ 10″ N., long. 92° 2′ 15″ E. Headquarters of the Subdivision of same name, but, as elsewhere in the State, the want of roads and means of land communication are severely felt. *Bázár*, dispensary, school.

Kai-leng.—Revenue circle in Toung-gnú District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Situated on the right bank of the river Tsittoung. In this circle is the Pouk-aing Lake, 9 feet deep during the rains, and 5 feet in the dry season. Pop. (1876), 2683; gross revenue, £330.

Káimahrá.—Village in Kheri District, Oudh; situated on the road from Lakhimpur *via* Muhamdi to Sháhjahánpur, about 1½ mile east of the Jamwári river, and surrounded on all sides by groves of mango trees. The property of the Káimahrá *tálukdár*, and the headquarters of his estate. Large artificial tank, 4 Hindu temples, and

10 mosques. Four sugar manufactories, good market, and vernacular school.

Káimganj.—North-western *tahsíl* of Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the southern bank of the Ganges. Area, 373 square miles, of which 240 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 183,801; land revenue, £21,964; total Government revenue, £25,464; rental paid by cultivators, £39,962; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 11½d.

Káimganj.—Town in Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 27° 33′ 10″ N., long. 79° 23′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 10,323. Lies on the open plain, distant from Fatehgarh 22 miles north-west. Noted for mangoes and potatoes. Anglo-vernacular school; dispensary.

Káimur.—The eastern but detached portions of the Vindhyán range, commencing near Katángi in the Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District of the Central Provinces, and running through the State of Rewah and Sháhábád District of Bengal, dividing the valley of the Tons from that of the Són. In the Central Provinces, this range almost disappears in places, and never attains many hundred feet above the plain; but in Sháhábád District it rises precipitously to a height of about 1500 feet above sea level, the summit forming a long tableland, with a series of saucer-shaped valleys, each a few miles in diameter, containing a deposit of rich vegetable mould in the centre, and producing the finest crops. The formation is primitive sandstone, intermixed with schistose limestone. The ruined fortress of Rohtás is situated on these hills. Several *gháts* or passes lead to the summit, some of which are practicable for beasts of burden. The Káimur ranges commence in lat. 24° 31′ 30″ N., and long. 83° 24′ E., within the Central Provinces, and occupy more or less continuously the great hilly area which extends from that point to lat. 25° N., and long. 84° 3′ 30″ E., within the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal.

Káira (*Kheda*).—A British District in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 22° 26′ and 23° 6′ N. lat., and between 72° 33′ and 73° 21′ E. long. Area, 1561 square miles; population in 1872, 782,733 persons. Bounded on the north by Ahmedábád District, a portion of the Gáekwár's territory, and the small State of Bálásinor in the District of Rewá Kánta; on the west by Ahmedábád District and the State of Cambay; and on the south and east by the river Mahi.

Physical Aspects.—Excepting a small corner of hilly ground near its northern boundary, and in the south-east and south, where the land along the Mahi is furrowed into deep ravines, the District of Káira forms one unbroken plain sloping gently towards the south-west. The north and north-east portions are dotted with patches of rich rice land, broken by untilled tracts of low brushwood. The centre of the

District is very fertile and highly cultivated; the luxuriant fields are surrounded by high-growing hedges, and the whole country is clothed with clusters of large shapely trees. Westwards, this belt of rich vegetation passes into a bare though well-cultivated tract of rice land; growing more barren and open to the south till it reaches the maritime belt, whitened by a salt-like crust, on the Gulf of Cambay.

The Mahi, the largest river of the District and the third of Guzerat rivers, flows for nearly 6 miles along the south-east and south boundary of the District. Its deeply cut bed, sandbanks, and scanty summer channel, unfit it for either irrigation or navigation. The Sábarmati, the fourth river in Guzerat, flows for 14 miles along the western boundary, and is much used for irrigation. The Khári, one of five smaller streams, waters a large area by means of canals and sluices. Except in two small tracts in the north-east and south-west of the District, where the land is saturated with salt, the supply from wells, reservoirs, and rivers is plentiful. Number of wells in 1876, 9341; water-lifts, 531; ponds, 4600; besides 9 canals and dams.

Minerals.—Iron ore was at one time worked in the neighbourhood of Kapadwanj. In the bed of the Májam river, about 15 miles from Kapadwanj, are found varieties of agate and moss stone. The bed of the Mahi contains masses and boulders of trap; while on its upper portion, on the Bálásinor frontier, rock is plentiful, including trap, with occasional limestone, quartz, and granite. At Lasundra, about 24 miles from the Nariád railway station, springs of hot water rise to the surface in ten or twelve cisterns, the hottest having a temperature of 115° F. The water, slightly sulphurous, is used in skin diseases.

Wild Animals.—Tigers and panthers, a few years ago always to be found in the bed of the Mahi, are now rarely heard of. Hyænas, jackals, foxes, wild hog, antelope, and hares are common. Of game birds, besides many varieties of duck, snipe and quail abound; while geese, bustard, and florican may occasionally be shot.

History.—Káira District is made up partly of lands acquired from the Peshwá in 1802, partly of territory transferred to us by the Gáekwár of Baroda in 1803 and 1817. (*See also* KAIRA TOWN.)

Population.—In 1846, the population was returned at 566,513. By 1872, it had risen to 782,733 persons, residing in 591 villages and 218,596 houses; density per square mile, 501; average area of villages, 2·64 square miles; houses per square mile, 140; persons per village, 1324; persons per house, 3·58. Males, 419,142; females, 363,591. Under twelve years, 286,232, or 36·56 per cent. of the population. The number of Hindus is 711,619; Musalmáns, 70,741; Pársís, 68; Christians, 305, of whom 243 are natives. Among Hindus, the most important classes are the Lewa and Kadwa Kumbís, numbering 144,639; they are the best farmers in the District, and a sober, peaceable, and industrious race.

The Kumbís of certain villages are held in honour, as descended from the leading men among the original settlers in Guzerat. The Rájputs, with the exception of a few who with the title of Thákur still retain landed estates, have sunk into the mass of ordinary peasant proprietors. The Kolís number 281,252, or 35·93 per cent. of the entire population. During the thirty years 1846-76, they increased from 175,829 to 281,252. Idle and turbulent under native rule, they are now quiet, hard-working, and prosperous. Among the Hindu low castes, numbering 61,834, the Dhers are distinguished for industry and good behaviour. They formerly lived in comfort by weaving coarse cotton cloth, but the competition of the Bombay and local steam mills is now shutting them out of the market. Of the Musalmán population, about one-third, under the name of Sayyids, Shaikhs, Patháns, and Mughals, represent the foreign conquerors of Guzerat. The remainder, called Momnás, Taís, and Ghánchís, are the descendants of Hindus converted under the dynasty of Ahmedábád kings. Musalmáns of the first class, employed chiefly as cultivators, or in Government service as police and messengers, are for the most part poor. Musalmáns of the second class, artisans, chiefly weavers and oil-pressers, are hard-working and well-to-do. There are 13 towns, each with more than 5000 inhabitants; aggregate urban population, 137,297, or 19 per cent. of the total population of the District.

Agriculture, the most important industry of the District, supports 529,334 persons, or 67·62 per cent. of the population. The soils belong to four classes—light, medium, black, and alluvial, with subordinate varieties. In 1876-77, 362,221 acres, or 75·09 per cent. of the Government cultivable land, were taken up for tillage, and 20,753 acres were fallow or under grass. Grain crops occupied 301,709 acres, or 88·35 per cent.; pulses, 27,082 acres, or 7·93 per cent.; oil-seeds, 3419 acres, or 1 per cent.; fibres, 4239 acres, or 1·24 per cent., of which 4122 acres were under cotton; miscellaneous crops, 19,620 acres, or 5·74 per cent., of which 10,161 acres were under tobacco. Millet (*bájra*), the staple grain crop, occupied 123,223 acres in 1876-77, or 36·08 per cent. of the total area under cultivation. The finest tobacco in Western India is grown in Káira; but though skilful in rearing the plant, the cultivators know nothing of its preparation for the European market. An irrigated field yields twice as large a tobacco crop as a dry one; but the leaf of the irrigated plant is co rser, and fetches only half the price. About the beginning of July, as soon as the first rain has fallen, the seed is sown on a well-prepared plot of ground, and after about a month and a half the seedlings are ready for transplantation. The field is scored in squares by a heavy, long-toothed rake, and at each point of intersection a seedling is set. The plant takes about five and a half months to ripen. As soon as it is ready, it is care-

fully examined, and divided into two classes, *kálio* and *jardo*; the *kálio* is cut down, stalk and all, and laid out to dry; the *jardo* is left a little longer, and then the leaves are stripped off the stem. The *kálio* is used for hookahs and for snuff; the *jardo* for chewing and smoking in cigarettes and pipes. Tobacco-growing is a costly process, and can only be undertaken by substantial cultivators. In the rural parts not only the strictly agricultural classes, Kumbís, Kolís, and Musalmáns, but the whole population, including Bráhmans and men of all castes, are engaged in cultivation.

Natural Calamities.—A severe famine took place in 1791-92; in 1813-14, there were only two showers of rain throughout the year; in 1825, the later rains failed, and remissions of land revenue to the amount of £16,198 were granted. In 1834, locusts ate up the crops, and remissions amounting to £19,655 were sanctioned. During the last forty years (1836-1876), though the rainfall has at times been scanty and the crops have failed, no season of famine or even of general scarcity has occurred in Káira District.

Land Tenures.—The revenue system in Káira is the ordinary Bombay tenure, by which Government settles with the individual holders of land, excepting in the following cases. Of the 559 Government villages, 90 are held on the *narivádári* tenure. The peculiarity of this holding is, that it involves joint responsibility for the payment of the Government revenue. In *narivádári* villages, the *pattidárs* or sharers, belong to the Kumbí caste, and on account of being *narivádárs* hold a high position among their caste people, being the descendants of the old proprietary cultivators. Certain villages on the banks of the river Mahi are held on the *mehwási* tenure, and pay their revenue in a lump sum. These villages are in the hands of the descendants of Kolí and Rájput chiefs, once great freebooters and the terror of the country. One of the Subdivisions has a clan of Musalmán yeomen, known as the Maleks, who for nearly 400 years have held 27 villages on a special tenure.

Trade.—Exports—grain, tobacco, butter, oil, and the petals of the *mahua* tree; imports—piece-goods, grocery, molasses, and dye-stuff. Soap and glass are manufactured at Kapadwanj, and a steam spinning and weaving mill has recently been established at Nariád, with 9860 spindles. Considerable quantities of coarse cloth for home consumption are woven in handlooms by the lower classes of Hindus. In the larger towns, calico printing is carried on by a class known as Bhávsárs or Chhipiás. About 40 miles of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway run through the middle of the District; 195 miles of road have during the past thirteen years been constructed or re-made. Money-lending is chiefly in the hands of the Bania and Sráwak castes. Rates of interest vary, according to the credit of the borrower, from

6 to 18 per cent. per annum, rising in the case of poor cultivators and labourers to 25 per cent. Labourers earn from 4½d. to 7½d. a day, bricklayers and carpenters from 9d. to 1s. 3d. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 have been—for a rupee (2s.), wheat, 26 lbs.; rice, 22 lbs.; *bájra*, 40 lbs.; and *dál*, 24 lbs.

Administration.—The total revenue of Káira, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted in 1875-76 to £249,314, or, on a population of 782,733, an incidence per head of 6s. 4½d., inclusive of £20,283 set aside for local works of public utility and for village schools. The land tax forms the great source of revenue, amounting to £195,184; other chief items are stamps and local funds. The District is distributed for administrative purposes into 7 Subdivisions; and contains 5 municipal towns, with an aggregate population of 67,019—viz. NARIAD, pop. (1872), 24,551; KAPADWANJ, 13,982; KAIRA, 12,681; MEHMADABAD, 8065; DAKOR, 7740. Their total receipts amounted in 1875 to £4243, and the incidence of municipal taxation varied from 5½d. to 1s. The revenue administration of the District is conducted by a Collector and three Assistants, of whom one is a covenanted civilian; for judicial purposes, Káira is included in the jurisdiction of the Judge of Ahmedábád. There are 5 civil courts, the yearly number of suits decided being about 11,000; 18 officers administer criminal justice. The regular police consists of 754 officers and men, being 1 man to every 2·07 square miles and to each 1088 inhabitants, costing £12,536, equal to £8, 0s. 1d. per square mile and 3¾d. per head of the population; number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, 1728, being 1 to every 453 of the population. In 1875, the daily average prison population was 144, including 6 females; the total cost of the jail was £1329, or £9, 3s. 3½d. per prisoner; cash profit on manufactures, £156, 2s., or £1, 4s. per effective prisoner; death-rate, 14 per thousand. There was 1 prisoner in jail to every 5088 of the District population. Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855-56, there were only 7 schools, attended by 1036 pupils; by 1876-77, the number of schools had risen to 189, and of pupils to 14,720, or an average of 1 school to every 3 inhabited villages. Káira District has a public library, and publishes three vernacular newspapers (1876).

Medical Aspects.—Average rainfall during the five years ending 1876, 30 inches. Fever of a malarious type is the prevailing disease. In 1876, eight dispensaries afforded medical relief to 1242 in-door and 57,545 out-door patients, and 20,735 persons were vaccinated. Reported deaths, 22 per thousand.

Káira (*Kheda*).—Headquarters town of Káira District, Bombay. Lat. 22° 44′ 30″ N., long. 72° 44′ 30″ E.; 5 miles south-west of Mehmadábád railway station. Pop. (1872), 12,681; municipal revenue, £748; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 2½d. per head. Káira is a very ancient

city, having a legendary connection with the *Mahábhárata*, and is proved by the evidence of copper-plate grants to have been known as early as the 5th century A.D. Early in the 18th century it passed to the Babi family, with whom it remained till 1763, when it was taken by the Marhattás under Dámájí Gáekwár; it was finally handed over to the British by Anand Ráo Gáekwár in 1803. Its frontier position rendered Káira important to us; and a large body of infantry, cavalry, and artillery were stationed here, until the transfer, in 1820, of the frontier station to Deesa. Civil hospital and post office.

Kairána.—Municipal town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 23′ 15″ N., long. 77° 14′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 17,742, consisting of 7817 Hindus and 9925 Muhammadans. Situated partly on the Jumna (Jamuná) lowland, and partly on the bank which leads to the higher ground above; distant from Muzaffarnagar 31 miles south-west. Mukarrab Khán, physician to the imperial family, received the town and surrounding country from Sháh Jahán; he adorned it with many edifices, and laid out a beautiful garden with a large tank. Tomb of the Muhammadan saint, Bú Alí Kalandar of Pánipat. Crowded houses; narrow and tortuous streets; well-paved and clean *bázár;* sanitary arrangements very defective. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1106; from taxes, £763, or 10⅛d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Kaisar-jo-Tando.—Government village in Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind, 9 miles south-west of Haidarábád, with which town and the villages of Khokhar, Húsri, Tando Haidar, and Jám-jo-Tando it has road communication. It is the headquarters station of a *tapádár*, and has a cattle pound. Pop. (1872), 1815, namely, 1431 Muhammadans and 384 Hindus, mostly Lohános. The town is said to have been founded by one Kaisar Khán Nizamáni during the rule of Mír Fateh Alí Tálpur.

Kaithal.—Western *tahsíl* of Karnál District, Punjab; lying between 29° 39′ 30″ and 29° 57′ N. lat., and between 76° 13′ and 76° 47′ E. long.

Kaithal.—Ancient municipal town in Karnál District, Punjab, and headquarters of the Kaithal *tahsíl.* Lat. 29° 48′ 7″ N., long. 76° 26′ 26″ E.; pop. (1868), 14,940, consisting of 8144 Hindus, 5380 Muhammadans, 239 Síkhs, and 1177 'others.' Picturesquely situated on the brink of an extensive artificial lake or moat, which half surrounds it, with numerous bathing-places and flights of steps. Distant from Karnál 40 miles west. Said to have been founded by the mythical hero Yudisthira, and connected by tradition with the monkey-god Hanúmán. Bears in Sanskrit the name of Kapistal. The town was renovated, and a fort built, under Akbar. In 1767, it fell into the hands of the Síkh chieftain Bhái Desu Sinh, whose descendants, the Bháis of

Kaithal, ranked amongst the most important and powerful cis-Sutlej chiefs. Their territories lapsed to the British Government in 1843. For a few years Kaithal formed the headquarters of a separate District, but in 1849 it was absorbed into the District of Thanesar, and again transferred in 1862 to that of Karnál. The ruins of the fort or palace of the Bháis stand out prominently on the bank of the lake. A high mud wall encloses the opposite side of the town. Small trade in grain, sal-ammoniac, live stock, and blankets. Refineries of saltpetre. Manufacture of lac ornaments and toys. Station of an extra-Assistant Commissioner; court-house, *tahsíli*, police station, dispensary, *sarái*. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £756, or 11½d. per head of population (15,809) within municipal limits.

Káiti.—Village in the Nílgiri Hills, Madras; situated in lat. 11° 22′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 46′ 30″ E., in a valley of the same name, 3 miles from Utákamand (Ootacamund). Pop. (1871), 960; number of houses, 194. Notable as one of the earliest settlements on these hills. A Government farm was established here in 1831. The valley is closely cultivated with barley, wheat, and other cereals, potatoes and garden crops. In 1835, Lord Elphinstone, then Governor, obtained the land on lease, and built and furnished a beautiful house, which in 1841 became the property of a civilian, from whom it passed to the Basel Mission. There are some 50 Christians in the valley.

Kajuri.—A petty State held by a guaranteed Girásiá chief, under the Bhopál Agency, the Central India Agency, and the Government of India. It is one of the subdivisions made of territory assigned to Rájan Khán, brother of the notorious Pindárí leader, Chítú. At the death of Rájan Khán, the share of Kajuri fell to one of his sons, Iláhi Baksh, who was succeeded in 1859 by his posthumous son, Karím Baksh, the present chief. For further particulars, see JABRIA BHIL.

Kakáir (*Konkair*).—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces, situated between the right bank of the Mahánadi and a high rocky hill surmounted by a fortress. Lat. 20° 15′ N., long. 81° 33′ E. Other lofty mountains surround the town, which is distant from Nágpur 170 miles south-east. Under the Marhattá Government, the *zamíndárí*, of which Kakáir is the chief place, was held on condition of furnishing, when required, 500 soldiers. In 1809, the Rájá was dispossessed of his territory; but, having joined the rebels in the troubles which arose on the escape of Apá Sáhib, he retook Kakáir, and was confirmed in possession, subject only to the payment of a fixed rent of £50 annually.

Kakar.—*Táluk* or Subdivision of Shikárpur District, Sind, lying between 26° 51′ 15″ and 27° 13′ 45″ N. lat., and between 67° 24′ and 68° 2′ E. long. Area, 602 square miles; pop. (1872), 46,443; number of *tapás*, 11; number of villages, 124. Total revenue in 1873-74, £15,240, of which £13,916 came from imperial, and £1324 from local sources.

Kakar.—Town in Kakar *táluk*, Shikárpur District, Sind; situated on the right bank of the Western Nárá, in lat. 26° 58′ N., and long. 67° 44′ E. Distant from Mehar 28 miles south-south-west, and from Rukan 10 miles south-west; roads to both places. Pop. (1872), 702, of whom 403 were Muhammadans and 299 Hindus. Local trade in grain and cloth. Post office and Government vernacular school.

Kakarbái.—Village in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces; situated on a peak to the left of the Chaich *nadi*, 54 miles from Jhánsi town, and 9 miles from Garotha. Pop. (1872), 1709. Post office and police station.

Kákori.—*Parganá* in Lucknow District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Malihábád *parganá;* on the east by Lucknow *parganá;* on the south by Bijnaur *parganá;* and on the west by Mohán Aurás *parganá* of Unao District. Originally in the possession of the Bhars, who were expelled by the Báis Rájputs, and the tract included in the Báiswára kingdom. The Báis Rájá Sáthan fixed upon the old Bhar stronghold of Kákorgarh as his fort and headquarters, from which he despatched plundering expeditions into the surrounding country. A force was sent against him by the Muhammadan King of Jaunpur; the Rájá was defeated and slain, and the Rájputs expelled from the *parganá*. At the present day, 34 out of the 64 villages are held by the descendants of the victorious Musalmáns. Area, 60 square miles, of which 30 are cultivated; the remaining half is nearly all uncultivable, owing to the extent of saline (*usar*) plains. Average incidence of Government land revenue, 4s. 6d. per acre of cultivated area, 3s. 10½d. per acre of assessed area, and 2s. 4½d. per acre of total area. Pop. (1869), 31,789, namely, Hindus, 25,627, and Muhammadans, 6162; number of males, 16,133, and females, 15,656; average density of population, 530 per square mile of total area, or 1059 per square mile of cultivation. The main line of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway runs through this *parganá*, within a mile of Kákori town.

Kákori.—Town in Kákori *parganá*, Lucknow District, Oudh; situated 9 miles due west of Lucknow city. Lat. 26° 51′ 55″ N., long. 80° 49′ 45″ E. An ancient town, dating from the time of the Bhars. Next to Lucknow city, it is the largest town of the District, and its well-stocked *bázárs* indicate considerable prosperity. The weaving trade, however, for which it was formerly noted, has of late years decayed. Kákori contains the tombs of several Muhammadan saints, and is the birthplace of numerous distinguished Musalmáns who have served under both, the Native and British Governments during the past century. Many of the native lawyers (*wakíls*) practising in the Lucknow courts reside in the town, and their well-built red brick residences considerably add to the beauty of the place. Pop. (1869), 8467, of whom 4831 are Hindus and 3636 Muham-

madans; number of houses, 1933. Two bi-weekly markets; Government school.

Kakrául.—Village in Darbhanga District, Bengal; situated about 12 miles north of Darbhanga, on the Jainagar road. Pop. (1872), 2440, of whom 2060 are Hindus, 378 Muhammadans, and 2 Christians. Cloth of good and fine texture is woven here, and is very popular with the Nepálese. An ancient sage, Kapil Muní, is said to have lived in the village. Annual fair in January or February.

Káksá. — Village and headquarters of a police circle (*tháná*) in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 27′ 10″ N., long. 87° 30′ 12″ E. Railway station on the chord line of the East Indian Railway.

Kákwágiri.—Village in the Gáro Hills, Assam, which figured prominently in the operations during the Gáro Expedition of 1872-73. (*See* GARO HILLS.) It was discovered, at an early stage of the expedition, that this village and Báwígiri were notoriously among the most disaffected, and they were occupied without difficulty, several prisoners being taken.

Kálabágh. — Municipal town and salt mines in Bannu District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 57′ 57″ N., long. 71° 35′ 37″ E.; pop. (1868), 6419, consisting of 1075 Hindus, 5300 Muhammadans, 25 Síkhs, and 19 'others.' Picturesquely situated at the foot of the Salt Range, on the right bank of the Indus, at the point where the river debouches from the hills, 105 miles below Attock. The houses nestle against the side of a precipitous hill of solid rock-salt, piled one upon another in successive tiers, the roof of each tier forming the street which passes in front of the row immediately above. Overhead, a cliff, also of pure rock-salt, towers above the town. An Awán family, who reside in Kálabágh, have a certain supremacy over the whole of their fellow-tribesmen, the representative of the family being known as Sardár or Khán. The salt is quarried at Mári, opposite the town, where it stands out in huge cliffs, practically inexhaustible. The similar outcrop at Kálabágh itself is not quarried. The quantity turned out in 1871-72 amounted to 77,615 *maunds* (say 2717 tons), and the revenue to £23,284. Alum also occurs in the neighbouring hills, and forms a considerable item of local trade. Manufacture of iron instruments from metal imported from the Kánigoram Hill. Staging bungalow, school-house, dispensary, *sarái*. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £412, or 1s. 4¼d. per head of population (6070) within municipal limits.

Ka-la-be.—Revenue circle on Bhílú (Bheeloo) Island, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; extending from the Salwín westwards across the central range of hills to the Tsai-ba-la-khyoung. Ka-la-be comprises Pan-hpa circle, and the total area of both is 4674 acres. Pop. (1876), 2890; land revenue, £713; capitation tax, £305.

Kaládgi.—A District in the Bombay Presidency, lying between 15° 50′ and 17° 27′ N. lat., and 75° 31′ and 76° 31′ E. long. Area, 5696 square miles; population in 1872, 816,037 persons. On the north Kaládgi is separated by the river Bhima from the District of Sholápur and the Akalkot State; on the east and south-east it is bounded by the Nizám's Dominions; on the south the Málprabha river divides it from the District of Dharwar and the State of Rámdrúg; and on the west it is bounded by the States of Mudhol, Jámkhándi, and Jath.

Physical Aspects.—Though alike in many respects, the lands of the District may conveniently be divided into two main sections—one north, the other south, of the river Kistna. The northern section forms one great treeless plain of black soil, stretching for about 60 miles from the Bhima to the Kistna. Throughout this tract, the general level of the plain is only interrupted by the broad bed of the Sena, the deep-cut channel of the Don, the shallower courses of smaller streams, and, in places, by a gentle rise and fall of the surface. South of the Kistna, towards the west, the level of the plain is broken by lines of hills. These are for the most part rounded and gently sloping, but the steep and quaintly-shaped sandstone cliffs of Bádámi form an exception to the rule. Between the hills lie wide barren tracts covered with rocks and loose stones; but there are also many stretches of light land, well wooded and bright with patches of red and white soil. To the east extends a black plain, as flat, treeless, and dull as that north of the Kistna. The District is well supplied with rivers and water-courses. Of these the most important are, beginning from the north, the Bhima, the Don, the Kistna, the Ghátprabha, and the Málprabha, all large rivers flowing throughout the year, and impassable during the rainy season except by boats. There are also many small streams. The water of the Don is too salt to drink, but the other large streams supply drinking water of a fairly good quality. In 1873-74, the District possessed for irrigation 467 dams, 456 water-lifts, and 5903 wells. The mineral products are iron, slate, basalt, limestone, laterite boulders, and a shale containing organic vegetable remains. There are no forests. The hills in the Bádámi and Húngúnd Subdivisions are covered with low brushwood, only fit for fuel. The chief wild animals found are panthers, deer, wolves, and jackals.

The lands included in the District of Kaládgi form part of the territory annexed on the defeat and flight of the Peshwá in 1818.

Population.—The Census returns of 1872 disclosed a total population of 816,037 persons, residing in 1205 villages and 143,704 houses; average density of population, 143 per square mile; houses per square mile, 25; persons per village, 677; persons per house, 6·95. Classified according to sex, there were 417,638 males and 398,399 females; proportion of males, 51·18 per cent. of total population. Classified

according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 153,799, and females, 139,575; total, 293,374, or 35·95 per cent. of the population. The Hindus numbered 728,583, and the Musalmáns, 87,401; there were also 52 Christians and 1 Jew.

Agriculture supports 531,827 persons, or 65·17 per cent. of the entire population. The land of the District varies from a poor sandy and stony soil to a rich deep black loam; the tract lying along the banks of the river Don is noted for its richness and power of retaining moisture. The sandy soils are unsuited for cotton, wheat, grain, and other cold weather crops, and yield only the common varieties of millet and pulse; but they are nevertheless, in the larger villages, well ploughed, manured, and weeded. The agricultural stock in State villages amounted in 1875-76 to 64,150 ploughs, 5478 carts, 230,999 bullocks, 127,422 cows, 102,432 buffaloes, 10,865 horses, 263,444 sheep and goats, and 6129 asses. Of 2,150,810 acres, the total area of Government cultivable land, 2,084,721 acres, or 96·92 per cent., were in 1875-76 taken up for cultivation, of which 88,941 acres were fallow or under grass. Of the remaining 1,995,780 acres under actual cultivation (799 acres being twice cropped), grain crops occupied 1,515,160 acres, or 75·92 per cent.; pulses, 100,865 acres, or 5·05 per cent.; oil-seeds, 78,512 acres, or 3·93 per cent.; fibres, 290,698 acres, or 14·56 per cent. (289,480 acres cotton); and miscellaneous crops, 11,344 acres, or 0·57 per cent. Among the agricultural products of the District, Indian millet or *joár*, grown both as a rainy-season and a fair-weather crop, held in 1875-76 the first place with 1,114,982 acres, or 55·87 per cent. of the total area under cultivation. It constitutes the chief food of the people; and, except in seasons of unusual abundance, the whole crop is consumed in the District. The other cereals of importance are, spiked millet or *bájra*, occupying 258,525 acres, and wheat, covering 109,982 acres. The most valuable, and, next to millet, the most widely grown crop is cotton, occupying an area which, during the four years 1872-76, has risen from 184,102 to 289,480 acres. Castor oil, linseed, safflower, and sesamum or *til* are grown and exported, safflower in considerable quantities. But little rice is produced, and what is grown is of an inferior variety. In some parts of the District, a careless system of tillage is followed, portions of many fields being allowed to lie waste and become choked with grass. With the growth of the population, the area under cultivation has of late years steadily increased, and tracts which thirty years ago sheltered the more dangerous sorts of wild beasts are now tilled fields. Unskilled labourers earn 5¼d. a dây, bricklayers and carpenters, 1s. 6d. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1875-76 were—for a rupee (2s.), *joár* (Indian millet), 54 lbs. (4s. 2d. per cwt.); rice, 26 lbs. (8s. 7d. per cwt.); wheat,

38 lbs. (5s. 11d. per cwt.); and *dál* (split-pease), 48 lbs. (4s. 8d. per cwt.).

Natural Calamities.—Owing to its uncertain rainfall, Kaládgi is very subject to failure of crops and consequent scarcity of grain. Like the rest of the Deccan, this District was at the beginning of the 15th century left by the great famine of 1396-1406 almost utterly waste and deserted; and in 1791, it again suffered grievously from the want of rain. In 1803, the Pindárís stripped the country of food, and the price of millet rose to 4 lbs. per rupee (56s. per cwt.). In 1818-19, a failure of rain caused great distress, and raised the price of millet to 12 lbs. per rupee, or 18s. 8d. per cwt. Other years of drought and scarcity were 1824-25, 1832-33, 1853-54, 1863-64, and 1866-67. Finally, in 1876-77, the failure of rain was more complete and general in Kaládgi than in any other part of the Bombay Presidency. The price of millet rose to 28s. per cwt.

Manufactures and Commerce.—A large proportion of the people earn a living as weavers, and the peasants add to their income by the sale of home-spun cotton thread. The chief manufactures of the District are cotton and silk cloth. In addition to what is used in the District, considerable quantities of cloth are sent to Sholápur, Poona, Belgáum, and the Nizám's territory. Of late years, the number of handlooms is said to have increased. Blankets are woven to a considerable extent, and are in considerable demand as far as Bombay. Large quantities of cotton yarn and cloth are also dyed and exported. Except the coppersmiths, whose wares are sent out of the District, none of the Kaládgi artisans have a name for special skill in their crafts. The chief articles of import are piece-goods and rice from Sholápur, cocoa-nuts and salt from the coast, betel-nut and spices from Kanara, and molasses from Belgáum. In all Subdivisional stations, and in some other of the larger villages, a weekly market is held. Amíngarh is a great mart for cattle and coast produce. Thirty years ago, there were no cart roads in Kaládgi; but in 1875-76, the number of carts was returned at 5478, and the main centres of trade are now connected by fair-weather roads.

Besides the local trading classes, there is a large body of Gujaráthí and Márwárí money-lenders and cloth merchants in the District.

Administration.—The total revenue of Kaládgi in 1876-77, under all heads, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted to £159,932, or, on a population of 816,037, an incidence per head of 3s. 9½d. The land tax forms the principal source of revenue, producing £129,481. Other important items are excise, stamps, and local funds. The District local funds created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education yielded a total sum of £7011. There are 10 municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 74,363 persons.

Their total receipts are returned at £3594, and the incidence of taxation varies from 3d. to 1s. 1½d. The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and five Assistants, of whom three are covenanted civilians. The number of fiscal Subdivisions is eight. For judicial purposes, Kalādgi is included in the jurisdiction of the Judge of Belgáum. There are 4 civil courts. Twenty-one officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police consisted in 1876 of 656 officers and men, or 1 to every 1298 of the population; total cost, £10,117, or £1, 15s. 6¼d. per square mile of area and 2¾d. per head of population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 1604, being 1 person to every 509 of the population. There is one District jail. Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855-56, there were only 9 schools, with 395 pupils. By 1876-77 the number of schools had risen to 137, attended by 6236 pupils, or, on an average, 1 school to every 8 inhabited villages. One vernacular newspaper was published in 1876-77.

Medical Aspects.—The rainfall in Kaládgi is very uncertain. The average during the five years ending with 1876 was 22 inches. The prevailing diseases are fever, rheumatism, guinea-worm, and cholera. Four dispensaries afforded medical relief to 179 in-door and 7876 out-door patients in 1876-77, and 21,756 persons were vaccinated. Vital statistics showed a death-rate of 24·29 per 1000.

Kaládgi.—Chief town and municipality, Kaládgi District, Bombay; situated 104 miles south by west of the Sholápur station, on the south-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Lat. 16° 12′ 30″ N., long. 75° 32′ E.; pop. (1872), 6592; municipal revenue, £276. Besides being the headquarters station of the District, Kaládgi has an assistant judge's court, civil hospital, and post office.

Káláhandi.—Chiefship in the Central Provinces.—*See* KAROND.

Kálahasti (*Kálastri*, *Calastri*).—*Zamíndárí* estate, situated partly in North Arcot and partly in Nellore District, Madras; one of the largest estates in the Karnatic. Pop. (1871), 231,527; number of villages, 784; number of houses, 41,551; area, 1127 square miles; *peshkash* (rent) to Government, £19,000. The revenues of the *zamíndár* are estimated at between £40,000 and £50,000 per annum. The country is in a great measure covered with scrub jungle, from which Madras city is supplied with firewood.

Kálahasti (*Kálastri*, *Calastri*).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras; situated in lat. 13° 45′ 2″ N., and long. 79° 44′ 29″ E., on the right bank of the Swarnamukki river, 16 miles north-east of Tripati (Tirupáti) railway station. Pop. (1871), 6749; number of houses, 2315. It is the residence of the *zamíndár* and a sub-magistrate; has large *bázárs*, and is a place of pilgrimage; called also Srí Kálahasti.

It is well built, in the form of a square, and is now surrounded by populous suburbs.

Kalai.—Port in Tanna District, Bombay. Lat. 19° 14′ N., long. 73° 6′ E. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £737; exports, £10,975.

Kálá Kúsí.—River of Purniah District, Bengal; marks one of the old beds of the Kúsí. Although it still presents to some extent the character of a river, it is so broken up by diverging, re-uniting, and interlacing channels, that it is almost impossible to determine where it begins or what is its course. It may, however, be considered to have its rise under the name of the Kamlá, near Rániganj, in the north of the District; whence it flows southward to Purniah town, where it receives its principal tributary, the Saurá. Below Purniah, it continues a southward course, often by several beds, until it falls into the Ganges (lat. 25° 16′ 45″ N., long. 87° 43′ 30″ E.) south-east of Manihári police station, opposite Sáhibganj.

Kalamb.—Town in Wún District, Berar. Lat. 20° 26′ N., long. 78° 22′ 30″ E. Has 548 houses, and bears signs of having once been a large town. It gave its name to one of the *Sarkárs* or Divisions of the old Berar Subah. There is a remarkable underground temple here, dedicated to Chintáman.

Kalánaur.—Agricultural town in Rohtak District, Punjab. Lat. 28° 49′ 45″ N., long. 76° 25′ 15″ E.; pop. (1868), 5646, consisting of 2725 Hindus, 2916 Muhammadans, and 5 Síkhs. Situated on the road from Rohtak to Bhiwáni. Small market town with some local trade. Manufacture of saddlery and leather work, purchased to supply Native cavalry.

Kalánaur.—Municipal town in Gurdáspur District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 1′ N., long. 75° 11′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 5091, consisting of 1705 Hindus, 3033 Muhammadans, 42 Síkhs, and 311 'others.' Situated on the Kirrán stream, 17 miles west of Gurdáspur. Historically interesting as the spot where Akbar received the news of his father's death, and ascended the imperial throne. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £283, or 11¼d. per head of population (6030) within municipal limits. Kalánaur was a place of considerable importance in the 14th, 15th, and 16th centuries.

Kalang.—Important offshoot of the Brahmaputra in Nowgong (Naogáon) District, Assam, which issues from the south or left bank a few miles below Bishnáth in Darrang on the opposite side of the river, and, after many windings through the centre of the District, finally rejoins the Brahmaputra at Kájálí-mukh, about 15 miles above Gauháti. For the last few miles of its course it forms the boundary between the Districts of Nowgong and Kámrúp. Its tributaries—all on the south or left bank—are the Michá, Diju, Nanái, Kapili, Kiling, and Sonái. The principal towns and centres of traffic are Nowgong, Rahá, and

Chápari-mukh. Since 1858, a large sandbank has formed at the exit of the Kalang from the Brahmaputra, which obstructs navigation during the greater part of the year. In the rainy season, the Kalang has a depth of 26 feet of water. A little south of Nowgong town are two large *bíls* or marshes, known as Mari Kalang and Potá Kalang, which have evidently been formed by changes in the course of this river. There is an important ferry at Rahá.

Kalan Kot (*Kalia Kot, Kála Kot*).—Fort in Jerruck (Jhírak) Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind; said to have been built in the 15th century, on the site of a still more ancient stronghold. It must have been of great strength, and the remains seem to show that it was destroyed by fire. The fort is 3 miles south of Tatta.

Kalaroá. — Municipal town and headquarters of a police circle (*thána*), Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; situated on the Betná river. Lat. 22° 42′ 35″ N., long. 89° 7′ 55″ E. Pop. (1872), 5937, viz., Hindus, 2335; Muhammadans, 3602. Number of males, 3102—females, 2835; number of houses, 917. Municipal income (1871), £121; average rate of taxation, 4⅛d. per head. Town police force of 1 petty officer and 10 men. Trade in rice and sugar.

Kalásá.—Village in Kádúr District, Mysore, near the sources of the Bhadra river, 30 miles west-south-west from Chikmagalúr. Lat. 13° 14′ 20″ N., long. 75° 24′ 11″ E. Contains a large temple dedicated to Kalesesvara, surrounded with ruinous mounds and inscriptions of the Bairasa Wodeyar family of Karkálá, dating from the 12th to the 16th century. Areca-nut produced in the neighbourhood is reckoned the best in Mysore.

Kálastri (or *Calastri*).—*Zamíndári* and village in Madras.—*See* KALAHASTI.

Ka-le-gouk.—Island off the coast of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It is 50 miles long, and runs north by west and south by east, with its northern extremity 30 miles from Cape Amherst. The northern half of the island is said to consist of 'a long granite ridge, with a perpendicular drop to the sea.' The western side is broken into abrupt hills, one of which, Quarry Bay, furnished the stones for the Alguada Reef lighthouse. The water supply is good, as a perennial spring of sweet water flows through the centre of the island.

Kalesar.—Forest reserve in Umballa (Ambála) District, Punjab, covering an area of 13,917 acres. It lies on the banks of the Jumna (Jamuná), and, running up the slopes of the Siwálik range, juts into Sirmúr State. This tract possesses great importance on account of the *sál* trees, which compose its principal timber.

Kalhatti.—Village in Nílgiri District, Madras. Lat. 11° 27′ 45″ N., long. 76° 43′ E.; 8 miles from Utákamand (Ootacamund), on the principal road to Mysore. Elevation above sea level, 6700 feet.

Kali.—River of the North-Western Provinces.—*See* GOGRA.

Káliá.—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*thána*) in Jessor District, Bengal. The village contains a settlement of Káyasths, many of whom are employed in the courts and Government offices at the headquarters town, and only return to their homes for the *Durgá-pújá* holidays, when they spend their time in boat-racing. Good water communication with Narál to the north, and Khulná to the south. Flourishing school; charitable dispensary.

Kaliábar.—Market village and police station (*thána*) in the extreme east of Nowgong District, Assam, near the point where the Kalang river issues from the Brahmaputra.

Káliá-Chak.—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*thána*) in Maldah District, Bengal; situated on the banks of the Ganges. Lat. 21° 51′ 15″ N., long. 88° 3′ 1″ E. Large indigo factory.

Kaliánpur.—North-westerly *tahsíl* of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; extending from the Ganges to the Jumna (Jamuná), and traversed throughout by the East Indian Railway. Area, 276 square miles, of which 159 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 116,391; land revenue, £28,452; total Government revenue, £31,303; rental paid by cultivators, £39,542; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 2⅝d.

Kálí Báori.—A petty State in the Bhíl (Bheel) Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. The chief or Bhúmia receives £137 and £12 *zamíndárí*, on condition of guarding the *parganá* of Dharmpur and being answerable for all robberies. He also receives £15 from Sindhia, and is answerable for robberies in seventeen villages in Bíkaner (Bickaneer). The present Bhúmia, Sher Sinh, was born about 1853.

Kálíbhanj.—Island in the estuary of the Dhámrá river, Cuttack District, Orissa. Lat. (centre) 20° 47′ N., long. 86° 56′ E.

Kálíganj.—Municipal union of villages in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated at the junction of the Jamuná and Kánksiálí rivers, on the boat route to the south. Lat. 22° 27′ 15″ N., long. 89° 4′ E.; pop. (1872), 3485; houses, 697; municipal income, £88; expenditure, £80. Large *bázár*, and considerable river trade. Manufacture of horn sticks. Village police force of 1 petty officer and 6 men.

Kálíganj.—Village in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Brahmaputra. A place of increasing importance, and a port of call for the Assam river steamers. Considerable exports of rice, paddy, and jute.

Kálíghát.—Sacred village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated on the bank of the old bed of the Ganges, a few miles south of Calcutta. Lat. 22° 31′ 30″ N., long. 88° 23′ E. The

temple in honour of Kálí, the wife of Siva, derives sanctity from the following legend. Her dead body was carried all over the world by her disconsolate husband, until at length the corpse was cut in pieces by Vishnu with his sacred disc (*sudarsan chakra*), and the 52 places where the different parts of the body fell became sacred as places of pilgrimage. One of her fingers is said to have fallen at this spot. The temple was built about three centuries ago by a member of the Sábarna Chaudharí family, who allotted 194 acres of land for its maintenance. A Bráhman named Chándibar was the first priest appointed to manage the affairs of the shrine; and his descendants, who have taken the title of Háldár, are the present proprietors. They have amassed great wealth, not so much from the endowments as from the daily offerings made by pilgrims. The principal religious festival of the year is on the second day of the *Durgá-pújá*, when the temple is visited by crowds of pilgrims from all parts of the District.

Kálíkot (*Kolikodu*).—*Táluk* and town in Malabar District, Madras. —*See* CALICUT.

Kalimiyar Point (KALLI-MEDU, *Támil*).—Madras.—*See* CALIMERE.

Káli Nadi, East.—River in Muzaffarnagar, Meerut (Mírath), Bulandshahr, Alígarh, Etah, and Farrukhábád Districts, North-Western Provinces; rises in Muzaffarnagar District, east of the Ganges Canal, and between that channel and the great sand-ridge of Sarái. During the earlier part of its course it bears the name of Nágan, and forms an ill-defined waterway, running through grassy fields. Lower down it gradually expands, and in the latitude of Bulandshahr becomes a perennial stream, running southward through a valley marked by high banks, and draining the whole eastern portion of the Doáb. Its channel is here very tortuous, and much injury has been caused by its inundations. At Khúrja the river trends south-eastward, and holds the same direction for the remainder of its course until it falls into the Ganges, in lat. 27° 1′ N., and long. 80° E., a few miles below Kanauj. The water is very little employed for irrigation, on account of its great depth below the surface. The total length of the East Káli Nadi is about 310 miles.

Káli Nadi, West. — River in Sahéranpur and Muzaffarnagar Districts, North-Western Provinces; rises 16 miles south of the Siwálik Hills, at an elevation of about 1000 feet above sea level, and flows with a general south-westerly course to join the Hindan. Lat. (point of junction) 29° 19′ N., long. 77° 40′ E.; total length, about 70 miles.

Kálindí.—A distributary of the Jamuná river, Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal. It branches off from the parent stream at Basantpur, whence it flows in a southerly direction through the Sundarbans, and falls into the Ráimangal in lat. 22° 7′ N., and long. 89° 5′ 30″ E. Some distance above the point where the Jamuná falls into the same estuary, about 7 miles below Basantpur, the Kálindí throws off a small creek,

which, communicating with the Kálígáchhí and Athárabánká rivers in the Sundarbans, and joining the Bidyadhárí, forms the track for the large boats from Calcutta to the eastward. The Kálindí is a fine deep river, averaging 300 feet in breadth.

Kálindri (or *Kálindí*).—River of Northern Bengal, an offshoot or distributary of the Kusí in Purniah District, entering Maldah about 6 miles north of Haiátpur town, near which place a natural connection has been effected with the Ganges. The main stream, however, runs a winding course in a south-easterly direction past Haiátpur for 20 miles, till it joins the Mahánandá at Maldah town, in lat. 25° 2′ 30″ N., long. 88° 10′ 15″ E. It receives no tributaries of any importance, the drainage of the neighbouring country being carried off by means of small creeks or *nálás*, which only contain water in the rainy season. The river is not wide, but flows in a very deep channel between banks of hard red clay, nowhere fordable during the rains.

Kalinga (or *Calinga*).—One of the nine kingdoms of Southern India in ancient times. Its exact limits varied, but included the Eastern Madras coast, from Pulicat to Chicacole, running inland from the Bay of Bengal to the Eastern Gháts. The name at one time had a wider and vaguer meaning, comprehending Orissa, and possibly extending to the Ganges valley. The Kalinga of Pliny certainly included Orissa, but latterly it seems to have been confined to the Telugu-speaking country; and in the time of Hiouen Thsang (A.D. 630) it was distinguished on the south and west from Andhra, and on the north from Odra or Orissa. The language of the country is Telugu. The Pandits derive the name of this language from Tri-linga, 'The country of the three *linga* temples.' These were at Amrawati, Andhra, and Kalinga. Taranatha, the Thibetan historian, speaks of Kalinga as one division of the country of Telinga. Hiouen Thsang speaks of Kalinga ('Kie-ling-kia') having its capital at what may now be identified with the site either of Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) or Coringa. Both these towns, as well as Sinhapur, Kalingapatam, and Chicacole, divide the honour of having been the chief cities of Kalinga at different periods. The modern Kalingia *ghát*, Kalingapatam, and Coringa may be taken as traces of the old name.

The following account of Kalinga, as described by Hiouen Thsang in 639-40 A.D., is condensed from General Cunningham's *Ancient Geography of India*, vol. i. p. 515:—

'In the 7th century, the capital of the kingdom of Kie-ling-kia, or Kalinga, was situated at from 1400 to 1500 *li*, or from 233 to 250 miles, to the south-west of Ganjám. Both bearing and distance point either to Rájámahendri on the Godávari river, or to Coringa on the sea-coast; the first being 251 miles to the south-west of Ganjám, and the other 246 miles in the same direction. But as the former is known

to have been the capital of the country for a long period, it seems to be the place that was visited by the Chinese pilgrim. The original capital of Kalinga is said to have been Srīkákulam, or Chicacole, 20 miles to the south-west of Kalingapatam. The kingdom was 5000 *li*, or 833 miles, in circuit. Its boundaries are not stated; but as it was united to the west by Andhra, and to the south by Dhanakakata, its frontier line cannot have extended beyond the Godávari river on the south-west, and the Gaoliya branch of the Indrávati river on the north-west. Within these limits, the circuit of Kalinga would be about 800 miles. The principal feature in this large tract of country is the Mahendra range of mountains, which has preserved its name unchanged from the time of the composition of the *Mahábhárata* to the present day. This range is mentioned also in the *Vishnu Purána* as the source of the Rishikulya river; and as this is the well-known name of the river of Ganjám, the Mahendra Mountains can at once be identified with the Mahendra Malé range, which divides Ganjám from the valley of the Mahánadi.

'Rájámahendri was the capital of the junior or eastern branch of the Chálukya princes of Vengi, whose authority extended to the frontiers of Orissa. The kingdom of Vengi was established about 540 A.D. by the capture of the old capital of Vengipura, the remains of which still exist at Vengi, 5 miles to the north of Ellore, and 50 miles west-south-west of Rájámahendri. About 750 A.D., Kalinga was conquered by the Rájá of Vengi, who shortly afterwards moved the seat of Government to Rájámahendri.

'The Calingae are mentioned by Pliny as occupying the eastern coast of India, below the Mandei and Malli, and the famous Mount Malens. This mountain may perhaps be identified with the high range at the head of the Rishikulya river in Ganjám, which is still called Mahendra Malé, or the Mahendra Mountain. To the south, the territory of the Calingae extended as far as the promontory of Calingon and the town of Dandaguda, or Dandagula, which is said to be 625 Roman miles, or 574 British miles, from the mouth of the Ganges. Both the distance and the name point to the great port-town of Coringa as the promontory of Coringon, which is situated on a projecting point of land at the mouth of the Godávari river. The town of Dandaguda, or Dandagula, seems to be the Dántapura of the Buddhist chronicles, which, as the capital of Kalinga, may with much probability be identified with Rájámahendri, only 30 miles to the north-east of Coringa.

'A still earlier name for the capital of Kalinga was Sinhapura, so called after its founder, Sinhabahu, the father of Vijáya, the first recorded sovereign of Ceylon. Its position is not indicated, but there still exists a large town of this name on the Lalgla river, 115 miles to the west of Ganjám, which is very probably the same place.

'In the inscriptions of the Kálachuri or Haihaya dynasty of Chedi,

the Rájás assume the titles of Lords of Kálanjjwrapura and of Tri-Kalinga. Kálinjar is the well-known hill fort in Bundelkhand; and Trí-Kalinga, or the "Three Kalingas," must be the three kingdoms of Dhanaka or Amarávati (on the Kistna), Andhra or Warangol, and Kalinga or Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry). The name of Trí-Kalinga is probably old, as Pliny mentions the Macco-Calingae and the Gangarides-Calingae as separate peoples from the Calingae, while the *Mahábhárata* names the Kalingas three separate times, and each time in conjunction with different peoples. As Trí-Kalinga thus corresponds with the great Province of Telingána, it seems probable that the name of Telingána may be only a slightly contracted form of Trí-Kalingána, or the "Three Kalingas."'

Kalinga (or *Calinga*).—Municipal town and headquarters of a police circle (*thána*) in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated about 3 miles west of the Jamuná river. Lat. 22° 46′ 56″ N., long. 88° 50′ 5″ E. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 8737; Muhammadans, 6940; Christians, 10; total, 15,687—viz. males, 7563, and females, 8124—residing in 2203 houses. Municipal income (1872), £387; expenditure, £337; average rate of municipal taxation, $5\frac{7}{8}$d. per head. Town police force of 2 head constables and 30 men.

Kalingapatam (*Calingapatam*).—Town and port in Ganjám District, Madras; situated at the mouth of the Vamsadhára river, 16 miles north of Chicacole. Lat. 18° 20′ 20″ N., and long. 84° 9′ 50″ E.; pop. (1871), 4675; number of houses, 975. It was the capital of the ancient Kalinga, and one of the early seats of Muhammadan Government in the Telugu country. Signs of its ancient greatness are still visible in the ruins of many mosques and other large buildings. Kalingapatam is again rising in importance as a harbour, being the only safe roadstead along a stretch of 400 miles of coast; and it has become a regular port of call for steamers. In 1875-76, the imports were valued at £16,400, and the exports of rice, seeds, and sugar at £62,800. In that year 84 ships called at the port. Kalingapatam yields a salt revenue of from 4 to 5 *lákhs* of rupees (say £40,000 to £50,000).

Kalingia.—*Ghát* or pass in Ganjám District, Madras; over which runs the only good cart road from Gumsar (Goomsur) into the Maliyas. Lat. 20° 6′ N., long. 84° 30′ E. The length of the ascent to the crest of the *ghát* is 5 miles; gradient easy; elevation, 2396 feet above sea level.

Kálinjar.—Town and celebrated hill fort in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 1′ N., long. 80° 31′ 35″ E.; pop. (1872), 4019, chiefly Bráhmans and Kachhís. Situated on a rocky hill, in the extreme south of the District, 33 miles south of Bánda town. The fort occupies a site on the slopes of the Bindáchal range, the first and lowest terrace of the Vindhyán system. It has an elevation of 1230

feet above sea level, and is separated from the adjacent heights by a chasm 1200 yards in width. The sides rise steeply from the plain, with a nearly perpendicular face in the upper portion of 150 to 180 feet in height. Vast polyhedral masses of syenite form the base of the hill, and afford a comparatively accessible slope; but the horizontal strata of sandstone which cap the whole, present so bold an escarpment as to be practically impossible of ascent. The town, though now greatly decayed, contains numerous ruins which testify to its former importance. Ferishta maintains that Kálinjar was founded by Kedár Rájá, a contemporary of the Prophet, in the 7th century A.D.; but Hindu literature contains allusions to the fort at a much earlier date. The *Mahábhárata* mentions it as already a famous city, and states that whoever bathes in the Lake of the Gods, the local place of pilgrimage, is as meritorious as he who bestows in charity one thousand cows. The hill must have been covered with Hindu temples before the erection of the fort, for the dates of inscriptions on the sacred sites are earlier than those on the gate of the fortress; and the ramparts consist largely of ornamental pillars, cornices, and other fragments of carved work, which evidently belonged to earlier edifices. Local legend connects the foundation of the stronghold with Chandra Brim or Varmma, the ancestor of the great Chandel family of Rájputs, who removed their seat of Government hither after their defeat by Prithi Ráj, the Chauhán ruler of Delhi. Musalmán historians make mention of the King of Kálinjar as an ally of Jáipál, Rájá of Lahore, in his unsuccessful invasion of Ghazní, 978 A.D. A Rájá of Kálinjar was also present at the battle of Peshávar, fought by Anand Pál in 1008 A.D., when endeavouring to check the victorious advance of Mahmúd of Ghazní in his fourth expedition. In 1202 A.D., Kutab-ud-dín, the viceroy of Muhammad Ghorí, took Kálinjar, and 'converted the temples into mosques and abodes of goodness,' while 'the very name of idolatry was annihilated.' But the Musalmáns do not seem long to have retained possession of their new conquest, for in 1234 we hear of a second Muhammadan invasion of Kálinjar, which fell into the hands of Malik Nasirat-ud-dín with great booty. In 1247, Sultán Násir-ud-dín Mahmúd brought the surrounding country under his sway; but even after this date Chandel inscriptions erected in the fort show that it remained in the hands of its ancient masters almost up to the close of the 13th century. Kálinjar next reappears in history in 1530, when the Mughal Prince Humáyun laid siege to the fort, which he continued intermittently to attack for twelve years. In 1554, the Afghán Sher Sháh marched against the stronghold; during the siege a live shell rebounded from the walls into the battery where the Sultán stood, and set fire to a quantity of gunpowder. Sher Sháh was brought out horribly burnt, and died the following day. Before his death, however, he

ordered an assault, which took place immediately, with success. Under Akbar, Kálinjar formed a *jágír* of the imperial favourite, Rájá Bírbal. Later it fell into the hands of the Bundelas (*see* BANDA DISTRICT); and on the death of their national hero, Chhatar Sál, it passed into the possession of Hardeo Sah of Panná. His descendants continued to hold it for four generations, when they gave way to the family of Káim Jí, one of their own dependants. During the period of Marhattá supremacy, Alí Bahádur laid siege to the fort for two years, but without success. After the British occupation, Daryan Sinh, the representative of Káim Jí, was confirmed in possession of the fort and territory; but on his proving contumacious in 1812, a force under Colonel Martindell attacked Kálinjar, and although the assault met with little success, Daryán Sinh surrendered eight days later, receiving an equal portion of territory in the plains. During the Mutiny, a small British garrison retained possession of the fort throughout the whole rebellion, though completely isolated from all assistance. In 1866, the fortifications were dismantled. Kálinjar is still a place of much interest to the antiquary. Seven gateways, many of them bearing inscriptions, afford access from various quarters. Tanks, caverns, temples, tombs, and statues cover the platform on every side. The sculptures are too numerous to permit of specification, and belong to very different dates. The town contains a travellers' bungalow, *tahsíli* school, and branch dispensary.

Kalinjerá (or *Kanjrá*).—Town in Bánswára State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 23° 5′ N., and long. 74° 7′ E., on the route from Nímach (Neemuch) to Baroda, 99 miles south-west of the former and 139 north-east of the latter. Formerly a place of considerable wealth and trade, carried on by Jain merchants, who were driven away by Marhattá freebooters. Contains the ruins of a fine old Jain temple, described by Heber as being of a very complicated and extensive plan; covered with numerous domes and pyramids; divided into a great number of apartments, roofed with stone, crowded with images, and profusely embellished with rich and elaborate carvings.

Kálípání.—Sacred spring in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; regarded by the natives as the source of the river Káli, whose real headwaters lie 30 miles to the north-east. Lat. 30° 11′ N., long. 80° 56′ E. (Thornton). Situated on the slopes of the Byáns Rikhi Mountain, 5 miles south-west of Byáns Pass, on the route to Askot. Pilgrims visit the spring to bathe in its purifying waters on their way to Mánásarovára.

Kálí Sind.—River of Central India; rises in lat. 22° 36′ N., and long. 76° 19′ E., on the south side of the Vindhyá Mountains. About 90 miles from its source it receives on the left the Ludkunda, which also rises in the Vindhyás; and on the same side, about 60 miles farther

down, it is joined by the Ahu and Amjar at Gagrom. Near this place the Kálí Sind makes its way through the Mokundara range. Eventually, after a course of about 225 miles, it falls into the Chambal. About 50 miles from this point, at Kandgáon, the route from Kotal to Ságar (Saugor) crosses the river.

Káljání.—River of Northern Bengal, formed by the combined waters of the Aláikurí and Dimá rivers, two streams rising in the Bhután Hills, which unite near Alípur in the Western Dwárs Subdivision of Jalpáigurí District. From the point of junction the united river takes the name of Káljání, and, after a course of a few miles, flows south through the east of Kuch Behar State, and finally joins the Ráidhak in the extreme north-east corner of Rangpur District. Used to float down timber from the forests at the foot of the hills.

Kálka.—*Bázár* and camping ground in Simla District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 50′ 21″ N., long. 76° 58′ 57″ E. Lies at the foot of the Kasauli Hill, on the main road from Umballa (Ambála) to Simla, 37 miles from the former and 41 from the latter. The route to Simla here enters the hills, and travellers must leave the carriages in which they have come from Umballa. Several hotels, staging bungalow, post office, telegraph office, *sarái.* During the Simla season, the Kálka hotels do a thriving business, and native passengers to or from the hills throng the *bázár;* but in the winter the site is practically deserted. Elevation above sea-level, 2000 feet.

Kalladakúrchi.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 8° 40′ 30″ N., long. 77° 30′ 15″ E.; pop. (1871), 11,580; number of houses, 2974. A wealthy trading and agricultural town, situated on a feeder of the Támrapúrni.

Kallale.—Village in Mysore District, Mysore. Lat. 12° 5′ N., long. 76° 43′ E.; pop. (1871), 2306. Founded in 1504 by a local chief, whose family afterwards supplied the Dalaváyis or hereditary mayors of the palace, who supplanted the Hindu Rájás of Mysore, and were themselves overthrown by Haidar Alí.

Kallár.—Village in Nílgiri District, Madras. Lat. 11° 20′ N., long. 70° 56′ E. Although it belongs to Nílgiri District, Kallár lies low, being the *dák* (post) station (5 miles from the railway terminus at Mettapolliem), where the ascent of the Kunúr (Coonoor) *ghát* begins.

Kalligal.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras.—*See* Collegal.

Kalmeshwar.—Flourishing town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 14′ N., long. 78° 58′ E.; situated 14 miles west of Nágpur, and built on a low-lying plain of black soil, with a fertile country on the north and west, which produces opium, sugar-cane, and tobacco. Pop. (1877), 4738. In the centre of the town stands the old fort where the village proprietor, a Kumbí by caste, resides. It was built by a Hindu family from Delhi, who are said to have maintained, for the

service of Bakht Buland, a force of 400 infantry and 100 cavalry. Kalmeshwar does a brisk trade in grain, oil-seeds, and country cloth. Eighty mills are engaged in pressing oil-seeds; and the cloth manufactured in the town finds a market in Berar. From the proceeds of the octroi duties, a commodious market-place has been constructed, with wide metalled roads leading towards Nágpur, Kátol, Dhápewára, and Mohpá. The police station and school-house face the market-place.

Kálná (*Culna*).—Subdivision of Bardwán District, Bengal, lying between 23° 7′ and 23° 35′ 45″ N. lat., and between 87° 59′ and 88° 27′ 45″ E. long. Area, 431 square miles, with 781 villages and towns, 69,962 houses, and a pop. (1872) of 286,338 persons, viz. 137,421 males and 148,917 females. Number of Hindus, 216,558, or 75·6 per cent.; Muhammadans, 68,415, or 23·9 per cent.; Christians, 85; and others, 1280. Proportion of males in total population, 48 per cent.; average density of population, 66·4 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·81; persons per village, 367; houses per square mile, 1·62; persons per house, 4·1. This Subdivision, which was constituted in 1861, comprises the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Kálná, Bháturiá, and Mantreswar. In 1871, it contained 1 court, with magisterial, civil, and revenue jurisdiction; a regular police force 106 strong, besides a village or rural police of 2260 men.

Kálná (*Culna*).—Headquarters of Kálná Subdivision, and important seat of trade in Bardwán District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Bhágirathi, in lat. 23° 13′ 20″ N., and long. 88° 24′ 30″ E. Pop. (1872), 27,336—viz. Hindus, 22,463; Muhammadans, 3557; Christians, 38; others, 1278. Number of males, 13,138, and females, 14,198. Municipal income (1876-77), £914; average rate of municipal taxation, 7⅝d. per head. Before the opening of the East Indian Railway, Kálná carried on a very extensive river trade, as all imports into the District from Calcutta, and all exports to other Districts and to Calcutta, passed through the town. The railway, however, has not materially affected its prosperity, as it is still found cheaper to import from Calcutta by river than by rail. Large quantities of rice are imported from Dinájpur and Rangpur. The *bázár*, or business part of Kálná, contains about a thousand houses, mostly built of brick. In Muhammadan times, a large fort, the ruins of which are still to be seen, commanded the river at this point. A good road connects Kálná with Bardwán town; it was constructed in 1831 by the Mahárájá of Bardwán, and has bungalows, stables, and tanks at every eighth mile. The road was made chiefly with a view to the Mahárájá's comfort when proceeding to bathe in the Ganges. The Mahárájá has also a palace here, and has constructed some handsome temples in the town. Two fine mosques, now in a ruined condition, date from the time of Musalmán supremacy. Kálná

is a station of the Free Church Mission, and contains an English school.

Kálni.—One of the many offshoots from the Surmá river in the south-west of Sylhet District, Assam, which all finally unite to form the main stream of the Meghná.

Kalola.—Town in Baroda State, Guzerat. Lat. 22° 37′ N., long. 73° 31′ E.; pop. (1872), 5585.

Kálpi.—Town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 7′ 30″ N., long. 79° 47′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 15,570, consisting of 11,414 Hindus and 4156 Muhammadans. Situated on the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), among rugged ravines, 22 miles from Urái. Founded, according to tradition, by Básdeo or Vasudeva, who ruled at Kambái from 330 to 400 A.D. In 1196, it fell to Kutab-ud-dín, the viceroy of Muhammad Ghori. In 1400 A.D., the country around Kálpi and Mahoba was conferred upon Mahmúd Khán. Ibráhím Sháh, the Sharki prince of JAUNPUR, laid siege to Kálpi several times during the early part of the 15th century. In 1435, Hoshang, King of Málwá, captured the city; but seven years later, Mahmúd of Jaunpur, the successor of Ibráhím, complained to the Málwá prince that his viceroy at Kálpi neglected the laws of Islám, and obtained leave to chastise him. On capturing the place, however, he refused to restore it. After many intricate changes, Husáin of Jaunpur was defeated in 1477, in a great battle near Kálpi; and the town with its dependencies was thenceforth absorbed in the Provinces immediately subordinate to Delhi. On the accession of Ibráhím in 1518, Jalál Khán obtained the government of Jaunpur, and, having aroused the jealousy of the Sultán, assumed the insignia of royalty at Kálpi, and marched to attack the capital city of Agra. Being defeated, however, he fell ultimately into the hands of a Gond prince, who delivered him up to Ibráhím. After the battle of Pánipat in 1526, the confederates who endeavoured to drive out the Mughals, occupied Kálpi, but were defeated by Bábar at Fatehpur Síkri. During the Mughal period, Kálpi played so large a part in the annals of this part of India, that it would be impossible to detail its history at length. After the Marhattás interfered in the affairs of Bundelkhand, the headquarters of their government were fixed at Kálpi. At the time of the British occupation of Bundelkhand in 1803, Nána Gobind Ráo seized upon the town. The British besieged it in December of that year, and, after a few hours' resistance, it surrendered. Kálpi was then included in the territory granted to Rájá Himmat Bahádur, on whose death, in 1804, it once more lapsed to Government. It was next handed over to Gobind Ráo, who exchanged it two years later for villages farther to the west. Since that time, Kálpi has remained a British possession. On the 23rd of May 1858, Sir Hugh Rose (Lord Strathnairn) here defeated a large force of about

12,000 rebels, under the Rání of Jhánsi, Ráo Sáhib, and the Nawáb of Bánda. Kálpi was formerly a place of far greater importance than at the present day. It had a mint for copper coinage in the reign of Akbar; and the East India Company made it one of their principal stations for providing the commercial investment. A bridge of boats on the Jhánsi and Cawnpore road crosses the Jumna during the summer months. The western outskirt of the town, along the river-side, contains a large number of ruins, notably the tomb called the Eighty-four Domes, and twelve other handsome mausoleums. At one time the town adjoined these ruins, but it has gradually shifted south-eastward. Ganeshganj and Ternanganj, two modern suburbs in that direction, at present conduct all the traffic. The buildings of the old commercial agency crown some higher ground, but now for the most part stand empty. A ruined fort, situated on the edge of the steep bank of the Jumna, overhangs the *ghát.* Exports of cotton and grain to Cawnpore, Mírzápur, and Calcutta. Manufacture of sugar-candy and paper. Headquarters of an extra-Assistant Commissioner. Police station and dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1606; from taxes, £1342, or 1s. 7⅜d. per head of population (16,568) within municipal limits.

Kálpi.—Village, with large *bázár* and market-place, on the right bank of the Húglí, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; 48 miles below Calcutta. Lat. 22° 4′ N., long. 88° 18′ E. The river at this point forms an anchorage for vessels proceeding up or down.

Kalráyan. — Mountain range in Salem District, Madras, lying between 11° 38′ and 11° 52′ N. lat., and between 78° 31′ 30″ and 78° 46′ E. long.; averaging from 3000 to 4000 feet above sea level. Inhabited almost exclusively by Malayális, who occupy about 80 hamlets. Total pop. (1871), 5992. The principal part of the group is in the middle of Atúr *táluk.* This portion, which is divided into the Peria and Chinna (big and little) Kalráyan, was formerly held on favourable tenures by petty chiefs, who nearly denuded it of its forests. It is now rented to Government. The Malayálís pay tax, not on the land, but on their ploughs and billhooks. The great temple of this race, *Kari Ráman,* is on the Peria Kalráyan.

Kálsi.—Northern *tahsíl* of Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of the rugged mountain region of JAUNSAR BAWAR. Area, 343 square miles, of which 29 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 40,046; land revenue, £1969; total Government revenue, £2165; rental paid by cultivators, £2165; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2⅛d.

Kálsi.—Town in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 30° 32′ 20″ N., long. 77° 53′ 25″ E.; situated close to the junction of the Jumna (Jamuná) with the Tons.

Probably a place of great antiquity, but containing in 1872 a population of only 883 persons. *Tahsíli* school and charitable dispensary. The famous Kálsi stone, found near this place, bears an inscription of Asoka, the Buddhist emperor of Upper India.

Kálsia.—One of the Cis-Sutlej States, under the Government of the Punjab, lying between 30° 17′ and 30° 25′ N. lat., and between 77° 21′ and 77° 35′ E. long. The founder of the family was Sardár Gur Baksh Sinh, who came from the village of Kálsia in the Punjab proper. His son, Jodh Sinh, a man of ability and prowess, effected considerable conquests in the neighbourhood of Umballa towards the close of the last century. When the Cis-Sutlej States came under British protection, Sardár Jodh Sinh, after some hesitation, followed the general example. The present Sardár of Kálsia is Bishen Sinh, a Síkh by religion, of a Punjab Ját family. The area of the State is 155 square miles; the population was estimated in 1876 at 68,910 persons, and the revenue in the same year at £15,600. Principal products—wheat, cotton, Indian corn, sugar and saffron. The chief receives £285 per annum in perpetuity from the British Government, as compensation for the abolition of custom duties. The military force consists of 50 cavalry, 260 infantry, 3 guns, and 8 artillerymen.

Kalu.—River in the Gáro Hills District, Assam, which rises near the station of Turá, in lat. 25° 29′ N., and long. 90° 22′ E., and flowing west into Goálpára District, finally empties itself into the Brahmaputra. Its chief tributary is the Baranásí or Rangkan. During the rainy season it is navigable by boats of 2 tons burthen from Hárígáon, on the frontier of Goálpára District, up to Dámálgorí, which is within 12 miles of Turá.

Kalumbe (or *Kalúmar*).—The highest peak in the Bhánrer range, near Katangí, in Jabalpúr District, Central Provinces; 2544 feet above sea level. Lat. 23° 28′ N., long. 79° 47′ E.

Ka-lwí (*Ka-lwee*).—Revenue circle in Bheeloo Island, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 2675 acres, almost entirely cultivable; pop. (1876), 3255; land revenue, £711, and capitation tax, £352.

Kalyán.—Chief town, port, and municipality of Tanna District, Bombay; situated at the junction of the north-east and south-east lines of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 33 miles north-east of Bombay. Lat. 19° 14′ N., long. 73° 10′ E.; pop. (1872), 12,804. Municipal income, £1451. Average annual value of sea-borne trade during the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £163,171; exports, £151,181; total, £314,352. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Kalyánmal.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Aurangabad *parganá* in Sítápur, from which it is separated by

the Gumti river, on the east by Gundwá *parganá*, and on the south and west by Sandílá *parganá*. The ancient name of the place was Rathaulia, and it is said to be one of the Bráhmanical places of pilgrimage described in the *Rámáyana*. Tradition traces the name of Rathaulia from Ráma's having halted his chariot (*rath*) here, on his return from Ceylon, in order to wash away his sin of slaying Rávana in the sacred pool of Hattia Haran. Up to a period of five hundred years ago, it was held by the Thatheras, who were driven out by a Baiswára chief, Rájá Kumár, who ruled over 94 villages from his fort at Rathauli, the ruins of which still exist. His *náib* or deputy was a Sakarwár Kshattriya, named Nág Mal, who succeeded to the estate—according to some, after murdering his master, but according to others, by peaceable means. Two of his grandsons, Kalyán Sáh and Gog Sáh, inherited 52 villages, while a third succeeded to the remaining 42. The present *parganá* consists of the possessions of Kalyán Sáh and Gog Sáh, together with other villages in the south, which their descendants obtained possession of by driving out the Juláhas. Nearly the whole area (63 out of 72 villages) is still owned by Sakarwár Kshattriyas. The tract possesses no marked natural features. Like all the country along the Gumti, its poorest side borders the river, the land gradually improving towards the central level, and falling off again as the next river is approached. Area, 63 square miles, of which 41 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £4616; average incidence, 3s. 6¾d. per acre of cultivated area, or 2s. 3d. per acre of total area. The staple products are wheat and barley, which occupy two-fifths of the cultivated area; gram and *arhar* occupy another fifth, while the remainder consists of commoner grains and oil-seeds. The prevailing tenure is that known as imperfect *pattidárí*, which prevails in 37 villages; 29 are *zamíndárí*, and only 6 *tálukdárí*. Pop. (1869), 24,875—namely, Hindus, 23,115, and Muhammadans, 1760; number of males, 13,277; females, 11,598. The most numerous castes are Chamárs, Bráhmans, and Pásís. The Kshattriyas, who are the landholding community, form only a very small proportion of the general population. Roads consist merely of rough village cart-tracks. A fair, attended by about 14,000 persons, is held in the month of Bhadra at the sacred Hattia Haran tank, near Kalyánmal village. A numerously attended fair is also held at Kalyánmal village, in Agraháyan.

Káma (*Kámán*).—Town in Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 27° 40′ N., and long. 77° 15′ E., on the route from Muttra to Firozpur in Gurgáon, 39 miles north-west of the former. Thornton states that towards the end of last century, it was taken by Najaf Khán, Commander-in-Chief of the Forces of the Delhi Emperor, but it was subsequently acquired by the Rájá of Bhartpur (Bhurtpore). Post office.

Ka-ma. — Revenue circle on the west coast of Cheduba Island, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 36 square miles; pop. (1876), 2581; gross revenue, £461. The chief crops are rice and tobacco. At the north-west extremity is a round hill 200 feet high, emitting marsh gas, which has led to its being considered a volcano.

Ka-ma.—Revenue circle in Ka-ma township, Thayet District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated on hills reaching down to the right bank of the Irawadi. Pop. (1876), 3319; gross revenue, £1087. The area under cultivation is small.

Ka-ma. — Township in Thayet District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Lat. 18° 49′ to 19° 5′ N., long. 94° 45′ to 95° 14′ 20″ E.; area, 575 square miles; pop. (1876), 30,363; gross revenue, £6984. Bounded on the north by Thayet and Meng-dún townships; on the east by the Irawadi; on the south by Padoung township in Prome District; and on the west by the Arakan Yomas. Ka-ma includes Mya-wadi, the emerald country, so called from the expiatory offerings of a royal parricide. This division was formerly the charge of a Myo-thúgyí. At the time when the Register was prepared (1783 A.D.), the Myo-thúgyíship of Ka-ma is said to have contained 142 villages, which were divided into 5 circles and 59 village Thúgyíships. Mya-wadi, under Burmese rule, does not appear to have been divided into circles. The annual tribute exacted from Ka-ma was £857, and from Mya-wadi, £428.

Ka-ma.—Headquarters of Ka-ma township, Thayet District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Situated in lat. 19° 1′ N., and long. 95° 10′ E., on the right bank of the Irawadi, on picturesque hills, crowned by pagodas. The chief river is the Ma-de. All the surplus produce of the valley of the Ma-htún (a short distance above Ka-ma), consisting of tobacco, chillies, onions, cutch, and cotton, is sold here. Several legends are current as to the origin of the name Ka-ma. According to one of these, it was a prosperous town in the days of Rek-kan, King of Prome in 250 B.C., who called it Ma-há-ga-ma, *i.e. ma-há* 'great,' and *ga-ma* 'a second-class city,' viz. one with a market but without walls. The great Burmese king Alompra re-christened it Káma, *i.e.* 'love or desire.' It has been suggested that if the town was really called Mahágáma, it was called after the Mahágama of Ceylon, and the Maagrama of Ptolemy.

Kamadhia.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £650; no tribute is paid.

Ka-ma-ke. — Revenue circle in Bhílú Island, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 2112; land revenue, £713, and capitation tax, £211. To the south and east rise detached

hills; the rest of the country consists of vast alluvial plains, portions of which border the sea.

Kámákhyá.—Isolated hill in Kámrúp District, Assam; about 2 miles west of Gauháti. Lat. 26° 10′ N., long. 91° 45′ E. On the summit is a celebrated temple of Kámákhyá, the local goddess of love, which has given its name to the hill. The principal annual gatherings at this shrine are the *Purush-ávana* in January, to commemorate the marriage of the goddess with the god Kámeswar; the *Manasá-pujá* in August, and the *Sáradiyá-pujá* in September. All these festivals are attended by large crowds of people.

Kámákhyá.—Small range in the east of Nowgong District, Assam; situated between the Brahmaputra and its offshoot the Kalang; about 1500 feet high. On one of the hills, called the Kámákhyá Parbat, stands a temple of the goddess Durgá; and the slopes are under tea cultivation.

Kamalápuram (*Camlapoor*).—Town in Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 17′ N., long. 76° 30′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 5145; number of houses, 1294. A suburb of the ancient Vijáyanágaram, and, until 1820, the residence of the last surviving representative of the dynasty which ruled there. Has iron and sugar-boiling factories, situated 3 miles from the south bank of the Tungabhadra, at Hampi. The ruins of many temples are still visible, one of which has been converted into a bungalow.

Kamalapuri.—Village in the Banaganapalli estate, Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras. Remarkable only for the local superstition that in this village all snakes are harmless, and that any person bitten elsewhere will recover if brought here and dosed with a mixture of earth and water from the temple of Kamandaleswaram.

Kamália.—Town in Montgomery District, Punjab. — *See* KOT KAMALIA.

Kamálpur.—One of the mediatized or guaranteed Girásiá chiefships in the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. The chief, Thakúr Moti Sinh, receives *tankha* (or pecuniary allowance in lieu of land rights) from Sindhia, amounting to £460, paid through the Political Agent. He also holds a village in Shujáwalpur, under British guarantee, on a quit-rent of £70.

Kamalpur.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £270, and £77 is paid as tribute to the British Government.

Kamalpur.—Village in Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 42′ N., long. 81° 25′ E.; situated on the road from Allahábád to Fatehpur, 38 miles south-east of the latter town. Kamal, a Muhammadan saint, with his son and other disciples, lies buried in the neighbourhood. Mausoleums and other ruins stud the surrounding plain.

Kamarjání.—Market village in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Manás river. Large exports of rice, paddy, and jute.

Kamar-ud-dín-nagar. — Village in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 56′ N., long. 78° 10′ E.; situated 11 miles from Meerut, on the Burh Gangá. Pop. (1872), 574. The ferry at this village is much used. The river was twice crossed here by a British force in 1805, in pursuit of the retreating Amír Khán, on the occasion of his invasion of Rohilkhand. The old site of the village was swept away by floods in 1873.

Kamásan.—*Tahsíl* of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the south bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), and sloping up towards the Vindhyan range. Area, 348 square miles, of which 201 are cultivated. Pop. (1872), 83,387; land revenue, £15,607; total Government revenue, £15,965; rental paid by cultivators, £24,613; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 4¾d.

Kamátápur.—Ruined city in Kuch Behar State, Bengal; situated near the right bank of the Dharlá river. Lat. 26° 9′ 30″ N., long. 89° 22′ 15″ E. The city was founded by Rájá Níladwáj, the first king who succeeded the Pal dynasty in the government of Kámrúp. Its ruins indicate that it must have been a very extensive place. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, in 1809, found that it occupied an area 19 miles in circumference, 5 of which were defended by the Dharlá, and the rest by a rampart and ditch. The city consisted of several enclosures, one within the other, the centre one being occupied by the king's palace. Kamátápur was abandoned and fell into decay after the overthrow of Rájá Nílambhar, the second successor of its founder, by Husáin Sháh, Afghán King of Bengal, 1497-1521 A.D. Kamátápur figures rather conspicuously as Comatí in some of the earlier maps of India.

Kam-bai. — Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the left bank of the Bassein river. Area, 29 square miles, partly cultivated and partly covered with forest. Pop. (1876), 2353; gross revenue, £943.

Kambam (*Kambham*). — Town in Madura District, Madras.—*See* CUMBUM.

Kambam (*Kambham*).—Town in Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras. —*See* CUMBUM.

Kambar.—*Táluk* in Shikárpur District, Sind, lying between 27° 28′ and 27° 59′ 30″ N. lat., and between 67° 33′ 45″ and 68° 10′ E. long. Area, 943 square miles; pop. (1872), 73,329; number of *tapás*, 8; number of villages, 144. Revenue in 1873-74, £24,274, of which £22,439 was derived from imperial and £1835 from local sources.

Kambar.—Chief town in the Kambar *táluk*, Shikárpur District, Sind. Lat. 27° 35′ N., and long. 68° 2′ 45″ E.; distant about 12 miles by road

west by north from Lárkána. There is also road communication with Ghaibi Dero, Sijáwal, Rato Dero, Nasírábád, Dost Alí, and Sháhdádpur. It is the headquarters station of a *múkhtyarkár* and a *tapádár*, and, in addition to their *deras*, possesses a Government school, municipal hall, District bungalow, *musáfirkhána*, branch post office, and police lines for 29 men. Pop. (1872), 3518, including 1913 Muhammadans and 1550 Hindus. The Kambar municipality, established in 1862, had an income in 1873-74 of £476, derived mostly from town dues, cattle-pound fees, and fisheries. The town was plundered by the Baluchís in 1844.

Kambham.—Town in Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras.—*See* CUMBUM.

Kambham.—Town in Madura District, Madras.—*See* CUMBUM.

Kamlá.—River of Northern Behar, rising in Nepál; enters British territory near Jainagar in Darbhanga District, whence it flows in a south-easterly direction towards Kamtaul, near which it recently cut a new channel for itself into the Little Bághmatí. Its old bed runs southwards till it joins the Tíljugá, near the point where that river receives the Karái. Above Kamtaul, the Kamlá is sometimes navigable by boats of 10 tons burden. The lower part, known as the Old Kamlá, is generally dry in the cold and hot weather (as its main current is drained off into the Little Bághmatí); but in the rains it contains a good volume of water, and is navigable by boats of about 4 tons burden.

Kamoná.—Village in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 8′ N., long. 78° 10′ E. (Thornton); lies near the right bank of the East Káli Nadi, 64 miles south-east of Delhi. Thornton states that during Amír Khán's irruption in 1805, the *zamíndár* of Kamoná joined the invaders, and for some time defended his mud fort. Rebelling again in 1807, his fort fell into the hands of the British, after a resistance which cost the lives of several officers.

Kampli.—Town in Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 24′ 40″ N., long. 76° 38′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 9610; number of houses, 2798. The town is built on the bank of the Tungabhadra, close to one of the fords where the river may be crossed, and also near an important anicut or weir for irrigation. The site is low, and it is surrounded by paddy fields. Weaving, especially of silk cloths, is carried on. Sub-magistrate's court.

Kamptee.—Large town and cantonment in Nágpur District, Central Provinces.—*See* KAMTHI.

Kámrúp.—A British District, occupying the central portion of the Province of Assam. It lies between 25° 50′ and 26° 53′ N. lat., and between 90° 40′ and 92° 2′ E. long., extending along both banks of the Brahmaputra, bounded by Bhután on the north and the Khási Hills on the south; area, 3631 square miles; population (according to the

Census of 1872), 561,681 persons. The administrative headquarters are at the town of GAUHATI, on the south or left bank of the Brahmaputra.

Physical Aspects.—The general characteristics of Kámrúp are those common to the whole valley of Assam. In the immediate neighbourhood of the Brahmaputra, the land is low, and exposed to annual inundation. In this marshy tract, reeds and canes flourish luxuriantly, and the only cultivation is that of rice. At a comparatively short distance from the river banks, the ground begins to rise in undulating knolls towards the mountains of Bhután on the north, and towards the Khásiá territory on the south. The hills south of the Brahmaputra in some parts reach the height of 800 feet. It is on the slopes of these hills, amid the primeval jungle, that European planters have set out their trim tea-gardens. The general scenery of Kámrúp is thus agreeably diversified; and the villages are described as very picturesque in their position and structure.

The great river of Kámrúp is the Brahmaputra, which is navigable by steamers all the year through. It divides the District into two nearly equal portions, and receives numerous tributaries both on the north and south banks, which are themselves navigable for native boats during the rainy season. The most important of these are the Manás, Chául-Khoyá, and Barnadi on the north; and the Kulsí and Dibru or Sonápur on the south. The Brahmaputra exhibits the phenomena of alluvion and diluvion on a grand scale. Extensive sandbanks or islands are annually formed in some part of its wide channel, on which rank vegetation immediately springs up; but these new creations are often swept away by the floods of the following year, and their materials re-deposited lower down. Swamps and marshes are thickly dotted over the low lands of the District, many of which contain water through the dry season. There are no canals or artificial water-courses, but there are a few minor embankments for the protection of the crops. Forests cover a considerable portion of the District area, estimated at about 130 square miles. The Forest Department has reserved seven tracts, all in the south of the District, in the neighbourhood of the Kulsí river, with an aggregate area of 49 square miles; and the indiscriminate cutting of timber has been placed under restrictions. There is also a Plantation Reserve, where seedlings of teak, *sál*, *sissu*, *sam*, and *nahor* are reared, and experiments are being made with the caoutchouc tree. The total expenditure of the Forest Department in 1874-75 was £1019; the income, £412.

History.—Kámrúp preserves the name of the legendary Hindu kingdom spoken of in the *Mahábhárata.* This kingdom is said to have extended, not only over the whole of the Assam valley, but from the mountains of Manipur in the east to the Karátoyá river in the west. It thus included the greater portion of the Bengal District of

Rangpur. Rájá Bhagadattá, the son of Narak, whose capital was at the city of Prágjotishpur (identified with the modern Gauháti), is described in the *Mahábhárata* as espousing the cause of Dharjyudan, and being slain by the victorious Arjun. According to the authority of the *Aín-i-Akbarí*, Bhagadattá had twenty-three successors in his dynasty; and the *Yogini Tantrá* gives a confused account of some of these monarchs. Apart from these traditions, which are the common property of Hinduism and cannot be localized in Kámrúp, there is abundant archæological evidence to prove, that before the advent of the Ahams from the eastern mountains, Assam had been incorporated into the civilisation of India Proper. But beyond that bare fact, nothing can be predicated with certainty concerning the early Hindu inhabitants of the Brahmaputra valley. It is worthy of notice in this connection that the present District of Kámrúp contains several revered sites of Hindu pilgrimage; and that the Mahámuni temple, one of these sites, is annually visited by Buddhists from beyond the Himálayas, who regard it as sanctified by the presence of the founder of their faith.

Local tradition asserts that this tract was once ruled over by the Bara Bhuiyás, whose name would seem to indicate that they were chiefs of independent tribes. The dawn of authentic history shows us the Koch tribe, under their mythical leader Hájo, pushing their conquests from Kuch Behar Proper far up into Assam. The connection of Kámrúp with the advancing Muhammadan power dates from circ. 1204 A.D., when the Rájá, after making offers of friendship to Muhammad Bakhtiyar Khiljí, who did not respond, defeated the Musalmán forces. Bakhtiyar's army escaped with great difficulty. 'The armour of the Kámrúp people,' says a native historian, 'was entirely composed of bamboo tied together with silk.' Another Muhammadan writer relates of Ghiyás-ud-dín, circ. 1225 A.D., that he extended his arms from Jagannáth in Orissa to Kámrúp. Ikhtiyár-ud-dín Mulk-Usbeg again invaded the territories of Kámrúp in 1256-57 A.D., seized the capital, drove the Rájá back into the mountains, raised a mosque, and was proclaimed 'sovereign of the united kingdoms of Bengal and Kámrúp.' In the rainy season, however, the Hindus poured down from the mountains, cut the banks of the rivers, flooded the whole country, defeated and mortally wounded Ikhtiyár-ud-dín Mulk-Usbeg, and took his whole army prisoners (1257 A.D.). In 1489, Sultán Alá-ud-dín Husáin Sháh successfully invaded Kámrúp, plundered the country, and appointed his son Governor of the conquered districts. Nar Náráyan, the native king of the Kuch Behar dynasty, is known to have restored the two ruined temples of the goddess Kámákhyá and of Mahámuni, which are at the present day crowded by pilgrims from Bengal.

The date of the restoration is placed at 1550 A.D. His suc-

cessors were feeble princes, who divided their extensive empire, and fell an easy prey to the conquering Mughals. This was the period when the Muhammadans advanced farthest up the Assam valley. After annexing Rangpur and Goálpára to the Province of Bengal, they established themselves for a short time in what is now Kámrúp District, where the faith of Islám still has followers. But in 1663, Mír Jumlá, the well-known general of Aurangzeb, was severely defeated by the Ahams, a race of Shan origin, who had entered the upper valley of the Brahmaputra three centuries earlier. The Ahams forthwith fortified their new conquests, by restoring the ruined earthworks of Gauháti, whose original builders are unknown. Twice, and especially in 1682, the Mughals made endeavours to recover possession of the town; but on each occasion they were defeated with loss, and finally they were content to leave the Ahams in undisturbed possession of all Assam. The memory of these defeats long remained fresh in the minds of the Musalmáns. The later Nawábs of Bengal carefully encouraged the growth of the dense grass jungle, which naturally overgrows the banks of the Brahmaputra, in order to serve as the best defence against their Aham enemy. The fort of Rángámátí, now in Goálpára District, remained the extreme north-eastern outpost of the Delhi empire. Meanwhile, the wild Ahams were beginning to fall under the enervating influences of Hinduism. It is not known whether they brought any national religion with them from their home in the remote Burmese Hills. They displayed, however, to an eminent degree, the faculty of adapting themselves to the manners and beliefs of their subjects; and while their dynasty endured, it was based upon very firm foundations. Chakradwáj is the name of the first Rájá who submitted himself to the Bráhmans.

The British connection with Assam dates back as early as 1769, in which year a dispossessed Rájá besought to be restored to the throne by our assistance. Internal anarchy, caused by disputed successions, prevailed for many years, until in 1808 the Rájá in possession called in the Burmese to support his claims. The Burmese came as masters rather than as servants. They set up a puppet of their own, called Jogeswar, in whose name they governed Assam as a Province of the Burmese empire. In those days it was the British policy to exhibit indifference with regard to changes of administration that took place beyond the frontier of India; and Assam had never been recognised as an integral part of the peninsula. But in 1825, the Burmese, in assertion of their claims to universal empire, wantonly invaded the Bengal District of Cáchár. As an incident in the Burmese war that ensued, Assam was occupied by a British army. The Burmese retreated precipitately before the advance of the British troops; and in granting peace to them, we resolved to deliver the native Assamese from their

oppressive yoke. The Assam valley was annexed to Bengal, from which it was separated in 1874, and erected into an independent administration under a Chief Commissioner.

People.—An enumeration taken about the year 1840 returned the population of Kámrúp at 271,944 persons; a second enumeration, in 1848, raised this total to 387,775. It does not appear that either of these figures are better than mere estimates. A regular Census was conducted in 1871 by actual counting, through the agency of the *mauzádárs* or village revenue officials. The enumeration was not effected simultaneously in a single night, as was the case in Bengal, but was protracted through the greater part of the month of November. The results, which are believed to be fairly accurate, disclosed a total population of 561,681 persons, residing in 103,908 houses and in 1649 *mauzás* or villages. The area of the District is 3631 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 155; villages per square mile, 45; houses per square mile, 29. The average number of persons per village is 341; of persons per house, 5·4. Classified according to sex, there are 292,688 males and 268,993 females; proportion of males, 52·1 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years, 107,227 boys and 95,902 girls; total children, 203,129, or 36·2 per cent. of the total population. The ethnical division of the people shows 47 Europeans, 9 Americans, and 28 Eurasians; 137 Asiatics from beyond the frontier; 129,781 aborigines; 96,519 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 285,110 Hindus subdivided according to caste; 4217 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste; 45,823 Muhammadans; 10 Burmese. As compared with the rest of Assam, Kámrúp displays an ethnical character approximating to that of Bengal. The higher castes of Hindus, especially the Bráhmans and Kolitás, are well represented; and the considerable numbers both of Musalmáns and Vaishnavs indicate traces of early civilisation. On the other hand, the aboriginal tribes are also numerous, especially along the foot of the Bhután Hills. Among the aborigines of the Census Report, the Cácháris are returned as numbering 76,994; the Rábhás, 20,408; the Saraniyás, 11,812; the Mikirs, 11,447. These are all wild tribes of Indo-Chinese origin, whose common affinities it would be difficult to trace; they unite in repudiating the caste regulations and the purity of living enjoined by Hinduism. The semi-Hinduized aborigines of the Census are mainly composed of Kochs, who number altogether 69,227 out of a total of 96,519. They are supposed to be similar in origin to the Cácháris; but since the Bráhmans discovered a divine origin for the Kuch Behar Rájá, his tribesmen have adopted the high-sounding appellation of Rájbansí, and submit themselves in a greater or less degree to Bráhmanical rules. The Chandáls number 10,222; the Doms, 9566; the Ahams, who constituted the dominant race as late as the beginning of the present

century, now only show 1280 members. Of Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 31,355, divided between the two classes of Vaidik or Kámrúpí, and Rárhí; the Rájputs, only 33; the Káyasths, 5041. By far the most numerous caste is the Kolitá, numbering 106,950. These are said to have supplied the priesthood to the early Koch rulers of the country, before the introduction of Bráhmanism. They possess markedly Aryan features, and occupy a respectable position as pure Súdras. The majority are now engaged in agriculture; but some profess to identify themselves, in pursuits and in origin, with the Káyasths of Bengal. The Kaibarttas number 40,948, and the Sunrís, 16,522. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 514,024, or 91·7 per cent.; Musalmáns, 45,823, or 8·2 per cent.; Buddhists, 182; Christians, 204, among whom are included 120 native converts under the charge of the American Baptist Mission; others, 448. Kámrúp is the headquarters of a sect of Vishnuvites, known as Mahápurúshiás, who are described as extremely bigoted. Among religious institutions may be mentioned the *sástras* or convents, 61 in number, maintained by grants of rent-free land guaranteed by the British Government, and each under the management of its own *gosáin* or abbot. There are also 35 *devalais*, which appear to differ from the *sástras* in being the private property of certain families called Bardeorís. In addition to these two institutions, which are of ancient origin, there are also several Bengálí Gosáins, who are said to have immigrated into Assam in the beginning of the 18th century. The Muhammadams of Kámrúp are supposed to be descendants of the early invaders. The reforming Faráizí sect is represented, but fanaticism is not active. There is some immigration into the District, in connection with the cultivation of tea; emigration from the District is unknown.

The only town in Kámrúp, and indeed through the whole Province of Assam, with a population of more than 5000 is GAUHATI, the ancient capital of the kingdom, which now (1871) contains 11,492 inhabitants. The remainder of the population is absolutely rural. Out of a total of 1649 villages returned in the Census Report, no less than 1390 contain less than 500 inhabitants each. The people evince no tendency towards urban life, but rather the reverse. After Gauháti, the most important places are—the Subdivisional town of BARPETA; DIWANGIRI, on the slope of the northern hills, whither the Bhutiás flock annually to a large fair; and the temples at HAJO and KAMAKHYA, which attract many pilgrims from all quarters. Under the Aham dynasty, an elaborate system of local government was organized. The names of the old officials survive at the present day in certain families, as titles of social distinction; but the *mauzádár* or fiscal village officer is the only per-

sonage now recognised by the Government. A representative body, resembling the *pancháyat* of the Hindus, is found among the aborigines and other low castes, under the name of *mel;* the members are called *melkís.*

Agriculture.—The one staple harvest of the District is rice, which is grown in three different crops. The *áus*, sown broadcast on high lands, and reaped in the early summer; the *báo*, which chiefly differs from the preceding in being sown and reaped somewhat later; and the *sálí*, corresponding to the *áman* of Bengal, which is sown on low lands about June, transplanted in the following month, and reaped in the winter. The last of these three furnishes by far the largest portion of the food supply. On *áus* lands are also grown cold-weather crops, such as pulses and oil-seeds. The area under rice has increased by one-third within the past twenty years. The agricultural statistics for 1874-75 show only 458,015 acres under cultivation, out of a total area of more than 2 millions. The cultivated area is thus distributed:—Rice, 360,309 acres; pulses, 20,150; oil-seeds, 6133; sugar-cane, 3926; cotton, 2778; tobacco, 240; tea, 2687; miscellaneous, 6284. It is estimated that the waste land capable of cultivation amounts to nearly twice as much as that already under the plough. Irrigation is practised by the Cáchárís bordering on the Bhután frontier, who dam the hill streams, and lead the water over their fields by small artificial channels. Manure is nowhere used. The principle of the rotation of crops is unknown, but it is customary to allow *áus* land to lie fallow. The State is the supreme landlord throughout Kámrúp, and settles its land revenue demand directly with the cultivators. The number of tenants in Kámrúp in 1874-75 amounted to 109,504; in addtion to whom there are the *nisf-khirájdárs*, who pay nothing to Government. Since 1867, the following have been the rates of rent charged, which show an increase of about twofold on those previously current:—*Bástu* or homestead lands, 6s. an acre; *rupit* or moist lands, 3s. 9d. an acre; *faringhátí* or dry lands, 3s. an acre. The total annual produce of an acre of *rupit* land is returned at about 20 cwts. of paddy from the *sálí* harvest, valued at about £1, 2s. 6d.; *faringhátí* land yields about 14 cwts. of *áus* paddy, and 2 cwts. of oil-seeds or pulses, valued altogether at about £1, 7s. Ordinary coolies are paid at the rate of 12s. a month; agricultural labourers, 4½d. a day; skilled artisans receive as much as 1s. a day. It is found extremely difficult to obtain coolies for Government employment. Nearly all the inhabitants of the District are engaged in tilling their own little plots, and they can take up spare land in abundance at easy rates. Moreover, there is a deeply rooted prejudice in Assam, handed down from the days of Aham taskmasters, that to work for Government entails irremediable disgrace. Young men prefer to emigrate to remote tea plantations, rather than assist in constructing a road near their own villages. The average price of common

rice is about 2s. 8d. a cwt.; fine rice from Bengal fetches as much as 8s. a cwt. Indian corn sells at half a farthing per ear, sugar-cane at one farthing per cane. During the Orissa famine of 1866, the highest price reached by common rice was 8s. 10d. a cwt.

The only natural calamity to which Kámrúp is exposed is floods. Drought and blight are alike unknown. The rising of the Brahmaputra and of the minor rivers, annually lays under water a considerable portion of the country; but these inundations have never been known to affect the general harvests. There are ten important lines of embankment in the District of old date, and a demand exists for more of these protective works.

The means of communication are amply sufficient to prevent a local scarcity from at any time intensifying into famine. The main stream of the Brahmaputra, intersecting the District, is at all seasons navigable by steamers. During the rains, nearly every village is accessible by boat; and during the rest of the year, the country roads are in fair order. These roads usually run along the ridges of old embankments, and cross the rivers by wooden bridges. The Assam Trunk Road, under the management of the Public Works Department, runs through the north of the District for a distance of 96 miles.

Manufactures, etc.—Manufactures can hardly be said to exist in Kámrúp. In each family there is a rough loom, on which the women weave from silk and cotton the articles required for domestic use. There is a special class called Mariás, who support themselves by making brass cups and plates. The cultivation and manufacture of tea is conducted almost solely by European capital and under European supervision, but the soil and climate are not so favourable as in Upper Assam. The statistics for 1874 show 24 plantations, with 2638 acres under cultivation; the out-turn was 375,634 lbs., being a slight decrease on the previous year; 8 European assistants were employed, with 145 imported and 2176 local labourers.

The trade of the District is mainly in the hands of Kyáh or Márwárí merchants from the north-west, and of Muhammadan shopkeepers. The latter confine their operations to the towns of Gauháti and Barpetá. The main thoroughfare of trade is the Brahmaputra, which is always open to steamers and large boats. Business is conducted at a few permanent *bázárs* and at weekly *háts* or markets. Three large trading fairs are held in the course of the year. The chief export from the District consists of oil-seeds and timber; rice, cotton, jute, and various jungle products are also despatched down the Brahmaputra. The articles received in exchange are Bengal table-rice, salt, piece-goods, sugar, betel-nuts, cocoa-nuts, and hardware.

The American Baptist Mission at Gauháti is the only institution established in the District.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the total revenue of Kámrúp amounted to £119,980, towards which the land tax contributed £79,726, or 66 per cent., and *abkári* or excise, £30,412, or 25 per cent.; the total expenditure was £113,729, of which £15,577 were for expenses of collection, £20,622 for the Military Department, and £48,400 for Public Works. The land revenue is collected directly from the cultivators, as throughout the rest of Assam proper. The receipts have more than trebled within the last 25 years. In 1850, the land revenue realized £24,745; by 1874 this had increased to £85,135, raised from 109,504 cultivators, averaging 15s. 6½d. from each. In addition, a house tax, a relic of the ancient revenue system, is still levied from the nomadic cultivators along the foot of the Bhután Hills, at the rate of 4s. per house. In 1874, there were 6 magisterial and 4 civil courts open, besides 6 honorary magistrates with limited jurisdiction. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 295 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £4988. These figures show 1 policeman to every 12·30 square miles or to every 1904 of the population, and an average cost of £1, 7s. 7d. per square mile, or about 2d. per head of population. In addition, there is a municipal police of 39 men in Gauháti town, maintained by a local rate. There are no *chaukídárs*, or village watch, in any part of Assam proper. In 1872, the total number of persons in Kámrúp District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 1088, being 1 person to every 516 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains one jail and one Subdivisional lock-up. In 1872, the daily average number of prisoners was 76, of whom 66 were labouring convicts, showing 1 person in jail to every 7386 of the population. The total cost amounted to £896, or £11, 15s. 9d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £106. The death-rate was 13·2 per thousand, as compared with an average for the ten preceding years of 132·8. Education appears to have made more progress in Kámrúp than in any other part of Assam. In 1856, there were 26 schools in the District, attended by 74 pupils. In 1870, these numbers had risen to 66 schools and 2114 pupils; and by 1872, after the introduction of Sir G. Campbell's reforms, the schools had further increased to 146, and the pupils to 3969. These last figures show 1 school to every 25 square miles, and 7 pupils to every thousand of the population. In 1872, the school expenditure was £3020, towards which Government contributed £2050, or more than two-thirds. The chief educational establishment is the High School, which contains the only college department in Assam. In 1872, there were only 4 students in the college, and 199 in the school; the Government grant was £900, against £341 raised from fees and fines.

Kámrúp District is divided into two administrative Subdivisions, and 10 *thánás* or police circles. The number of *parganás* or fiscal divisions is returned at 116, with 85 estates or tracts under a separate *mauzádár* or revenue collector. The only municipality in the District is Gauháti town, with an area of 2 square miles, and a population of 11,492 persons. In 1876-77, the municipal revenue amounted to £2709, the average rate of taxation being 1s. 10½d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the District does not differ from that common to the whole of the Assam valley. The neighbourhood of Gauháti is exceptionally unhealthy, being shut in between the Brahmaputra and a semicircle of low hills; but much has recently been done in the way of sanitary improvements. The mean annual temperature is returned at 76°, the thermometer seldom rising higher than 90°. The annual rainfall over a period of eleven years has averaged 70·12 inches. The prevailing direction of the wind is from the north-east. During the cold weather, fogs gather daily in the early morning over the valley of the Brahmaputra.

The endemic diseases are malarious fevers, dysentery, diarrhœa, splenitis, scorbutis, and various forms of leprosy. Cholera, also, periodically makes its appearance in an epidemic form. Small-pox is said to be giving way before the growing practice of vaccination. It has been observed that the universal habit of opium-eating renders the natives less capable than elsewhere of recovering from the attacks of disease. Vital statistics are collected in the District by the *mauzádárs*, a somewhat less inefficient agency than the *chaukídárs* of Bengal. In 1874, their returns showed a death-rate of 21·2 per thousand. In the same year, the returns from selected areas gave a death-rate of 55·9 per thousand in the rural area, and only 18·5 in the urban area, which is conterminous with the town of Gauháti. Out of a total of 1525 deaths, 790 were assigned to cholera, 328 to bowel complaints, 231 to fevers, and 69 to small-pox. There is one dispensary at Gauháti town, which was attended in 1874 by 209 in-door and 972 out-door patients; the total income was £235, towards which Government contributed £84. Kámrúp is liable to be ravaged by several forms of cattle disease, of which, that known as *maur*, and described as a combination of cholera and dysentery, is especially fatal.

Kamsoli Moti and **Kamsoli Náni.**—Petty States in Rewá Kánta, Bombay, which, together with Jiral, are ruled by two chiefs. The area of the three States amounts to 3 square miles. The revenue derived from Kamsoli Moti is £110, and the tribute paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, £13. The revenue from Kamsoli Náni is £60, and the Gáekwár's tribute, £12. The revenue of Jiral is £159, and its tribute to the Gáekwár, £7.

Kamta Rajaula.—One of the petty States of Bundelkhand, under

the Central India Agency and the Government of India. Area, 4 square miles; estimated population in 1875, 2000; revenue in the same year, £300. Kamta is a celebrated place of Hindu pilgrimage, being one of the places where Ráma is said to have stayed during his wanderings. The chief, Ráo Bharat Prasád, is a Hindu Káyasth. He holds a *sanad* of adoption.

Kamtaránála.—State forest, thickly wooded with *sál,* in Ráipúr District, Central Provinces, along an affluent of the Jonk river. Area, 25 square miles.

Kámthá.—Estate in Bhandára District, Central Provinces, paying a quit-rent to Government of £4680, and comprising 207 villages. Area, 503 square miles, of which two-fifths are cultivated. Conferred more than a century ago on a Kumbí family, it was confiscated on their rebelling against the Rájá of Nágpur in 1818, and granted to the ancestor of the present chief, a Lodhí, whose family, by payment of heavy fines, acquired the *zamíndári* tenure or chiefship.

Kámthá.—Town in Kámthá estate, Bhandára District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 31′ 0″ N., long. 80° 21′ 0″ E. Pop. (1878), 2661, chiefly agricultural. The chief of Kámthá has a handsome residence, surrounded by a wall and moat. He provides the conservancy, and has built a large dispensary at his sole expense. Government school, District post office, and police station.

Kámthí (*Kamptee; Kámpti*).—Large town and cantonment in Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 13′ 30″ N., long. 79° 14′ 30″ E.; 9 miles north-east of Nágpur, immediately below the junction of the Kanhán with the Pench and Kolár rivers. Pop. (1877), 48,831. The military lines and *bázárs* are laid out along the right bank of the Kanhán on the principle of a camp, except that the cavalry are on the extreme left. A broad road, about 4 miles long, runs right through. In 1870, the military force, which is a first-class brigade command, belonging to the Madras establishment, consisted of 3 batteries of European artillery, a regiment of Native cavalry, a regiment of European infantry, and a regiment and a half of Native infantry. An extensive parade ground, south-east of the cantonment, separates it from the town, which is built in broad and regular streets, and in 1870 contained 8129 houses. A considerable trade is carried on in cattle, country cloth, salt, and European piece-goods. The Márwáris have the grain trade almost entirely in their hands. There is also a brisk traffic in timber, floated down the rivers to the town. Municipal affairs are managed by two committees, consisting of non-official Native, and *ex-officio* English members, and presided over by the Brigadier-General commanding the Force. The latest improvements are—an excellent masonry tank, constructed partly at the cost of Bansílál Abírchand Rái Bahádur, an influential resident; the Temple Gardens, for recreation; a good *sarái;* and a large central market-place. The

town has its dispensary, schools, and *dharmsálás* for travellers; and the cantonment contains a large building used for public purposes. There is a commodious Protestant church, built in 1833; and a Roman Catholic establishment of the order of St. Francis de Sales, with a convent and church; in addition to 5 Muhammadan mosques and 70 Hindu temples. Kámthí dates only from the establishment of the cantonment in 1821. It used to be thought unhealthy, but, owing to sanitary improvements, the death-rate of late years has greatly decreased. The supply of water is drawn chiefly from the Kanhán, supplemented by a large tank and 360 wells.

Ka-myaw-keng.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 12 square miles, chiefly under rice; pop. (1876), 2280; gross revenue, £386.

Ka-myit.—Large revenue circle in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Chief products—rice, sesamum, and tobacco. Pop. (1876), 3488; gross revenue, £680.

Kan (or *Kán*).—River of Málwá, Central India, rising in lat. 22° 36′ N., and long. 75° 55′ E., on the north side of the Vindhyan range, 8 miles east of Mhow (Mau). It flows in a northerly direction through a very fertile country until it is joined by the Saraswati. It then takes a north-easterly direction for about 19 miles, and eventually falls into the Siprá, in lat. 23° 8′ N., long. 75° 50′ E. On the route from Mhow to Ujjain, about 12 miles from the source of this river, there is a good ford.

Káná Dámodar.—Water-course in Húglí District, Bengal; formerly one of the main channels of the Dámodar into the Húglí. It branches off from the present Dámodar near the point where the Káná *nadi* leaves that river, and flows southwards through Húglí District parallel to the Dámodar. In the lower portion of its course it is known as the Kánsoná *khál*, under which name it enters the Húglí River about 5 miles above Ráipur and 1 mile north of Ulubária.

Kanáigirí.—Fort in Nellore District, Madras.—*See* KANYAGIRI.

Kan-aing.—Revenue circle in Ramrí township, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 18 square miles. Chief products—coarse sugar and indigo. Pop. (1876), 4068; gross revenue, £781.

Káná-nadi.—Water-course in Húglí District, Bengal; formerly the main channel of the Dámodar, but now a petty stream. It branches off from the present Dámodar near Sálimábád in South Bardwán, whence it flows south-east and east through Húglí District till it joins the Ghiá *nadi*, when, under the name of the Kunti *nadi* or Nayá-sarái *khál*, it falls into the Húglí river at Nayá-sarái, thus establishing a connection between the Dámodar and the Húglí. A cutting was recently made through the silted up mouth of this river; the silted mouth having shut

off the villages from their water supply. It now carries off a considerable portion of the Dámodar water, which is largely made use of for irrigation.

Kanandagúdi.—Town in Tanjore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 39′ N., long. 79° 20′ E.; pop. (1871), 2840; number of houses, 397. An important station of the S. P. G. Mission.

Kanara (*Canara*), **North.**—The most southerly of the coast Districts of Bombay, lying between lat. 13° 52′ and 15° 31′ N., and between long. 74° 10′ and 75° 7′ E. Area, 4235 square miles; pop. (1872), 398,406 persons. Bounded on the north by Belgáum District; on the east by Dhárwár and Mysore; on the south by South Kanara, in the Madras Presidency; on the west for about 76 miles by the Arabian Sea; and on the north-west by the territory of Goa. Chief town and seaport, KARWAR.

Physical Aspects.—The SAHYADRI range of the Western Gháts, varying in height from 2500 to 3000 feet, runs through the District from north to south, dividing it into two parts, viz. the uplands or Bálághát (area, about 3000 square miles), and the lowlands or Payanghát (covering about 1300 square miles). The coast line is only broken by the Kárwár headland in the north, and by the estuaries of four rivers and the mouths of many smaller streams, through which the salt water finds an entrance into numerous lagoons winding several miles inland. The shore, though generally sandy, is in some parts rocky. Fringing its margin, and behind the banks of the brushwood-bordered lagoons, rise groves of cocoa-nut trees, and inland from this line of palms stretches a narrow strip of level rice land. The whole breadth of the lowlands, never more than 15 miles, is in some places not above 5 miles. From this narrow belt rise a few smooth, flat-backed hills, from 200 to 300 feet high; and at places it is crossed by lofty, rugged, densely wooded spurs, which, starting from the main range of the Sahyádri Hills, maintain almost to the coast a height of not less than 1000 feet. Among these hills lie well-tilled valleys of garden and rice land. The plateau of the Bálághát is irregular, varying from 1500 to 2000 feet in height. In some parts the country rises into well-wooded knolls, in others it is studded by small, isolated, steep hills. Except on the banks of streams and in the more open glades, the whole is one broad waste of woodland and forest. The open spaces are dotted over with hamlets or parcelled out into rice clearings.

Stretching across the watershed of the Sahyádri Hills, North Kanara contains two sets of rivers—one flowing west to the Arabian Sea, the other east towards the Bay of Bengal. Of the eastern streams, the Warda, a tributary of the Tungabhadra, alone calls for mention. Of those that flow westwards, four are of some consequence—the Káli in the north, the Gangáwali and Tadri in the centre, and the Shiráwati in the south. The last of these, plunging over a cliff 825 feet in height,

about 35 miles above the town of Honáwar, forms the famous Gersoppa Falls. Along the coast, the quality of the water is good, and the supply throughout the year abundant. Total number of wells in 1873-74, 22,990; water-lifts, 2144; and ponds, 6591. The prevailing rocks are granite and trap, the former largely predominating. At the base of the granite hills, laterite formation is common. Along the coast from Kárwár to Honáwar, the surface rock is almost entirely hard laterite, a stone admirably adapted for building purposes. Iron ore occurs in some portions of the District, and limestone is found in the valley of Yán, about 18 miles from Kumpta (Coompta). The forests of North Kanara form its principal feature. They flourish both below and above the line of the Sahyádri Hills, and have, during the past ten years (1866-76), yielded an average annual net revenue of £39,307. Though all contain many varieties of trees, they may be arranged in three classes, severally distinguished by the predominance of *ain* (Terminalia glabra), teak (Tectona grandis), and the Karvi bush. Along the Káli river and its affluent, the Renery, stretch fine forests of teak trees, with smooth, shapely stems, rising without a branch to a height of 70 feet. The working of the reserves is under the direct charge of the Forest Department. Each season, the trees suited for felling are marked by the forest officers, and the timber, when cut, is removed by contract to a depôt, and there sold by public auction. The cultivators are allowed to gather dry wood for fuel, and leaves for manure, and to cut bamboos and brushwood for their huts and cattle-sheds. They are also supplied, free of charge, with such timber as they require for their own use. In former years, most of the produce of the Kanara forests went westwards to the sea-coast, finding its chief markets in Bombay and Guzerat. Of late years the sea trade has fallen off, and the bulk of the timber is now taken eastward to the open country in and beyond Dhárwár.

Kanara is almost the only part of the Bombay Presidency abounding in wild animals. Tigers, common and black leopards, bears, hyænas, wild dogs, bison, *sámbhar*, wild boars, and red and grey squirrels are still numerous. Several varieties of deer, porcupines, hares, jackals, foxes, and wild cats are also to be found. Of winged game there are pea-fowl, jungle-fowl, florican, spur-fowl, partridges, snipe, quail, duck, widgeon, and teal.

History.—The early history of the District is included in the next article on SOUTH KANARA. Until 1861, North Kanara formed part of the Presidency of Madras. In that year, on the ground of its nearness to Bombay and the close mercantile relations existing between the Bombay merchants and the traders of Kárwár, Kumpta (Coompta), and Honáwar, the District was transferred to Bombay.

Population, etc.—The Census Returns of 1872 disclosed a total

population of 398,406 persons, residing in 1065 villages and 91,593 houses; density of population, 94 per square mile; houses per square mile, 21; persons per village, 374; persons per house, 4·35. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 206,417, and females, 191,989; proportion of males, 51·81 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years — 70,282 boys, and 64,995 girls; total children, 135,277, or 33·95 per cent. The religious classification shows 364,402 Hindus, 21,755 Musalmáns, 25 Parsís, 12,189 Christians, and 34 Jews. Among Hindus, the most noteworthy class is the Havik Bráhmans (about 41,000), who make their livelihood by spice and areca-nut gardens. Besides the regular Muhammadan population (descendants of local converts to Islám), generally in poor circumstances, employed chiefly in agriculture and by Government as messengers and police, there are, in Kanara, two special bodies of foreign Muhammadan settlers. Of these, the most important and well-to-do are the Naváyatás or seamen, representatives of the colonies of Arab merchants, of whom a remnant still exists along the whole coast line of the Bombay Presidency, from Gogo southwards. The other foreign Musalmán community is the Sidhis, descendants of African slaves formerly owned by the Portuguese. Although they have intermarried for several generations with the low-caste population of the District, the Sidhis have not lost their original peculiarities. They still possess the woolly hair and black skin of the pure African negro. They are for the most part very poor, and, settled in dense remote forests, live on the produce of little patches of rude cultivation. The Christians in the District, who are almost all Roman Catholics, belong to two classes, of which the first consists of a few families from Goa, of Portuguese extraction, though much mixed by intermarriage with the natives of the country; the second are descendants of local converts to Christianity. Christians of the higher class are clerks, the rest principally artisans and labourers. There are famous Jain temples at Gersoppa and Bhatkal, and forts of some antiquity at Mirján and Sadáshivgad. Gokarn and Banwási, also, have fine old granite temples.

Agriculture, etc.—Agriculture gives employment to 275,333 persons, or 69·11 per cent. of the entire population. The cultivated portions of the low lands are either sandy plains, lying along the shore and the banks of rivers, or narrow, well-watered valleys, which are for the most part planted with rice, cocoa-nut groves, and areca or betel-nut gardens. In the uplands, the soil is generally a stiff clay, retentive of moisture. But owing to the want of inhabitants, and also to the malarious climate, many fertile and well-irrigated valleys lie waste, and covered with forest. The area under tillage is returned at 333,175 acres, or 12·2 per cent. of the total area. As the survey has not been introduced

into the whole of the District, this estimate is only approximate. For the same reason, no trustworthy details are available as to the area devoted to different crops. Rice, of which there are many varieties, is the staple of the District. *Rági* (Eleusine coracana), sugar-cane, and safflower are also grown to a considerable extent; and cocoa-nuts, areca-nuts, cardamoms, and pepper are produced in gardens in large quantities for home consumption and for export. The culture of chayroot is still very limited, but its red, black, and chocolate dyes are coming into repute in Europe. Cochineal is largely exported to England. Coffee is grown to a very small extent; and, compared with the system followed by European planters in the Wynád and Mysore, its cultivation is careless and slovenly. Rice and garden lands are irrigated, the water being obtained from perennial streams. Near villages, especially on the coast, there are groves and avenues of Alexandrian laurel, which attains a large size. The areca-nut gardens, which are situated in the upland valleys, are surrounded by strong fences, within which are planted rows of cocoa-nut, jack, and mango trees. The betel-leaf creepers are trained on areca palms. The upland gardens also contain pepper, cardamoms, ginger, plantains; and sometimes pumelo, orange, lime, and iron-wood trees (*nágchámpa*) are found in these higher tracts. Formerly, in the most open parts of the forest, nomadic cultivation by brushwood burning (*kumári*) was carried on, principally by tribes of Marhattá extraction. In the cold season, the hillmen used to cut down the bushes and lower branches of the larger trees, and burn them before the rains set in. In some places the seed was sown in the ashes on the fall of the first rains, the soil having been untouched by implements of any kind. Compared with most parts of Bombay, the greater part of the land of North Kanara has hitherto nominally been in the hands of a few large proprietors. But since the introduction of the Revenue Survey, the ease with which land can be divided has shown that many of the large estates were in reality groups of moderate-sized holdings.

Commerce, etc.—The District contains 12 ports, of which five—Kárwár, Kumpta, Ankola, Bhatkal, and Honáwar—are important. Out of £1,841,173 (the total value of the trade at these ports in 1876), £1,199,077 represented exports, and £642,096 imports. Rice, cotton, timber, cocoa-nuts, and spices are the principal articles of export. The cotton comes from Dhárwár, Mysore, Bellary, and the Nizám's Dominions, and is shipped from Kárwár and Kumpta. The chief articles of import are piece-goods, silk, metal, sugar, and spirits. The Kárwár and Kumpta carvers in sandal-wood and ebony have successfully exhibited their workmanship at the various Industrial Exhibitions in Europe. Salt, made from January to June in lands rented from Government, is one of the chief manufactures. Length of

roads within the District, 191 miles. Rates of interest vary according to the credit of the borrower, from 12 to 24 per cent. per annum. Except a few Christians, the labouring classes are almost all Hindus. The daily wages of unskilled labour vary from 4½d. to 1s., and of skilled labour from 1s. to 2s. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were—rice, 28 lbs. per rupee (2s.); wheat, 26 lbs.; and *dál* or split pease, 26 lbs.

Administration.—The total revenue of North Kanara District—imperial, local, and municipal—amounted in 1876-77 to a total of £165,597; incidence of taxation per head, 8s. 3¾d. The land tax, as elsewhere throughout India, forms the principal source of revenue, yielding £82,862. The item next in importance is the forest revenue, £34,281. The District local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, supply a total of £12,596. There are 5 municipalities with an aggregate population of 38,258, and a total income of £3518; incidence of municipal taxation, from 10½d. to 2s. 5d. per head of the population. The administration of North Kanara, in revenue matters, is entrusted to a Collector and four Assistants, of whom two are covenanted civilians. The District is provided with a judge's court. For the settlement of civil disputes, there are 5 courts; 19 officers share the administration of criminal justice. Total strength of the regular police, 698 officers and men, averaging 1 man to every 6 square miles and to every 595 persons. Yearly cost of police, £11,046, being £2, 12s. 2d. per square mile, and 6⅝d. per head of population. Education has widely spread of late years. In 1865-66, there were 16 schools, attended by 929 pupils; by 1876-77, the number of schools had risen to 83, with 4425 pupils, averaging 1 school for every 11 inhabited villages. There are 4 libraries or reading-rooms in the District.

Medical Aspects.—The rainfall varies on the coast from 100 inches a year at Kárwár to 163 at Kumpta. In the uplands, the rainfall is less, being on an average about 72 inches. Fever of a severe type is the prevalent disease. In 1860, a very bad epidemic of fever broke out, and, gradually spreading over the whole District, extended eastwards into the rice tracts of Dhárwár. During 1861 and 1862 the fever raged with great severity both along the sea-coast and in the Dhárwár and Hubli Subdivisions. The Sanitary Commissioner to the Bombay Government was deputed to investigate the cause, but no definite results were arrived at. The people believed that the appearance of the disease was recurrent in cycles of eighty Jupiter or sixty solar years, together with the flowering of the bamboo. The bamboo has, however, since then flowered and died throughout the District, but no increase in the local fever is apparent. During 1872, small-pox was very prevalent. In 1876, 10 dispensaries afforded relief to 1329 in-door

and 32,459 out-door patients, and 10,726 persons were vaccinated. Reported annual death-rate, 30 per 1000.

Kanara (*Canara*), **South.**—A British District in the Madras Presidency; situated on the western coast, between 14° 31′ and 15° 31′ N. lat., and between 74° 1′ and 75° 2′ E. long. It is bounded on the north by North Kanara (Bombay), on the south by Malabar, on the east by Mysore and Coorg, and on the west by the Indian Ocean. Area, 3902 square miles; population, based on Census of 1871 (according to Parliamentary Abstract of 1878), 918,362. The administrative headquarters and chief town is MANGALORE.

Physical Aspects.—South Kanara is intersected with streams, and, from the broken nature of the country, the scenery is most varied and picturesque. Abundant vegetation, extensive forests, numerous groves of cocoa-nut palms along the coast, and rice-fields in every valley, give refreshing greenness to the prospect. The most densely-inhabited tract, which is situated along the seaboard from north to south of its entire length, and extends into the interior from 5 to 25 miles, may be roughly described as a broken tableland of laterite, the height of which varies from 200 to 400 feet near the coast and rises to 600 feet towards the Ghâts. Inland, this so-called tableland is bounded by the lower spurs running down from the Ghât range. These spurs, which are numerous and of every conceivable form, are for the most part forest-clad, and consist, like the parent mountains, of gneiss, schist, quartz, hornblende, and granite. Of detached mountains, properly so called, there are none; but the rock of Jemalábád, near Beltangadi, and the hill known as the Ass's Ears, are well-known landmarks. The laterite downs near the coast are furrowed in every direction by numerous valleys of rich alluvial soil, by which the heavy rainfall of the south-western monsoon drains away. The laterite itself is an iron clay lying on the top of a granite bed. The granite is found at the base of every river, and constantly breaks above the surface of the laterite in round conical hills, sometimes covered with small trees, and in other places naked and bare.

The Western Gháts, rising from 3000 to 6000 feet, form a bulwark boundary on the eastern side of the District. They are crossed by several passes. The chief of them are the Sampaji, Agumbi, Charmádi, Haidar Ghur or Hasangadi, Manjarábád, and Kolúr, all of which connect the plateau of Mysore and Coorg with the lowlands of South Kanara. Up to these passes, good cart roads lead from Mangalore.

None of the rivers of the District exceeds 100 miles in length. They all take their rise in the Western Gháts, and, owing to the unfailing and heavy monsoon, become raging torrents at one time of the year and rocky or sluggish at another. Many of them are navigable during the fair weather for from 15 to 25 miles from the coast, and admit of a

considerable boat traffic, which brings down to the coast the coffee and other produce of Mysore and Coorg, and the rice grown in the interior. The principal of these rivers are the Netrávati, the Gurpúr, the Gongoli (or Gurget-hole), and the Chendragiri (or Puiswinni). From the nature of the country, with its numberless streams and their uncertain fords, the loss from drowning every year is considerable, the annual average number of deaths being 130. Owing to the rapid fall of the streams, especially in the interior, water might be used as a motive power without difficulty, but it is not so applied by the people. There is a small and pretty lake at Kárkal, and an undrained fresh water lagoon at Kundapur.

The District is rich in a fine clay, well adapted for pottery, and several firms are engaged in the manufacture of machine-made tiles and bricks. Kaolin is also of frequent occurrence underlying the laterite. Gold is found in small quantities at Mijár, garnets at Subramanya and Kemphalla. Iron exists in the Udipi and Uppárangadi *táluks*, but it is not worked. The forest land is of vast extent, but the exact area is unknown, as the District has never been surveyed. Most of the land is private property, and only a few forests near the Gháts are owned by Government. At present the large timber forests are almost entirely confined to scattered portions of the Gháts and the immediate neighbourhood. A large portion of the uncultivated tract reaches to within a few miles of the coast, and supports a secondary and fuel-producing growth,—broken up and terminated towards the seaboard by undulating pasture ground of somewhat poor description. The Forest Department have failed to realize from the District more than £2000 to £4000 annual revenue, owing to unsettled claims of the *rayats* to the greater portion of the forest. The principal products are—timber, bamboos, fuel, cardamoms, wild arrowroot, gall-nuts, gamboge, catechu; fibrous barks (several kinds), cinnamon (both bark and oil); gums (*dhupa* and that of several Acacias); resins (from several forest trees, principally from genus Dipterocarpus); dyes (various, but mainly of sombre colour). These products, together with honey and beeswax, are collected by the Malekudis or hillmen; but the total export from the District is not important. There is a large yearly out-turn of sandal oil, amounting in value to over £15,000, but this is merely manufactured in Kanara, the sandal-wood being brought from Mysore for the purpose. Of timber trees, the best both in quality and quantity are the following:—*Bamboo mutti* or *banapú* (Terminalia tomentosa), *kiral boghi* (Hopea parviflora), *irul* (Xylia dolabriformis), *marawa* (Terminalia paniculata), blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), jack (Artocarpus integrifolia), wild jack (Artocarpus hirsutus), wild mango (Mangifera indica), poon spar (Calophyllum bracteatum), ebony (Diospyros ebenum), iron-wood (Mesua ferrea), palmyra (Borassus

flabelliformis), cedar (Cedrela toon), bengay (Pterocarpus marsupium), ben-teak (Lagerstrœmia, more than one species), and others of the Terminalia, Acacia, Dalbergia, and Dipterocarpus genera. The forests formerly abounded in game, which, however, is rapidly decreasing under incessant shooting without any close season. There are 7172 guns in the District; most of them are constantly in use. One effect of the great destruction of game is, that tigers and other beasts of prey are driven by the decreasing quantity of hog and spotted deer to feed upon cattle. Elephants, tiger, panther, *sámbhar*, the axis, and other small deer, and wild hog are to be found; but the Kanara jungles are the especial home of the bison. The people will not kill snakes, and no rewards are usually claimed for their destruction. The total number of deaths in the last three years is returned at 179 from snake-bite, and 20 from wild beasts.

History.—The history of South Kanara is not easily traced. From an ethnological point, the country has no independent existence. The southern portion is Malayálam, the middle Tuluva, and only the north in any sense Kanarese. The very name is a misnomer. Kanara or the *Karnatadesa* (the country where the Kanarese people dwell, and the Kanarese tongue is spoken) is properly the land above the Gháts, of which Mysore, Coorg, and part of the Ceded Districts form the most considerable tract. By one of the strange processes of history, the name strictly applicable to this region (KARNATIC) has been transferred to the Tamil country below the Eastern Gháts, while the name of Kanara is given to the Malabar-Tuluva country on the western coast. South Kanara, at least as far north as Udipi, formed part of the ancient kingdom of Kerála; and certainly, as far north as the Chendragiri river, the people and language belong to Malabar. Passing over the legendary period of Parasu Ráma, we find that in 1252 A.D. a Pandyan prince conquered and ruled the country, and his successors gave place (A.D. 1336) to the Vijáyanagar Ráj. In 1564, when the power of the latter dynasty was broken at the battle of Talikot, the governor of Bednúr (originally only a rich *rayat*) threw off his allegiance and established the kingdom of Bednúr, to which in process of time Kanara from Honore to Nileshwár was added. In the earlier dealings of the Company's factors with the Cherakal Rájá, this kingdom is spoken of as 'our enemy Canara.' The northern part of Kanara, probably as far south as the confines of Tuluva, was ruled in early times by the Kadamba (A.D. 161 to 714) and Ballal (714-1335) dynasties. The Ikkeri Rájás of Tuluva (1560 to 1763), like the Bednúr Rájás, to whom latterly they became feudatory, rose to power on the ruins of Vijáyanagar.

In 1763, when Haidar Alí conquered Bednúr, he despatched detachments to secure the western coast; and Mangalore and Basrúr were

occupied within a few months of the fall of the capital. Immediate steps were taken to utilize the possession of the seaboard and found a Mysorean navy; and in 1766, Haidar passed through the District to the conquest of Malabar. Two years afterwards, an English force from Bombay captured Haidar's fleet, and occupied Honore and Mangalore, only to surrender them a few months later to Haidar's troops under Tipú. One of Tipú's first acts was the deportation and forcible conversion to Muhammadanism of a large portion of the Christian inhabitants of Kanara. In 1783-84, South Kanara was again the scene of war between the English and Mysore troops, which terminated, after a gallant defence of over nine months, in the evacuation of Mangalore. South Kanara finally became a British possession in 1791.

In 1834, on the occasion of the deposition of the Coorg Rájá, the inhabitants of Amara and Suliya petitioned for annexation. In 1837, the Government complied with their request, and the Maganis were added to the Puttúr Division of South Kanara. This, however, caused great dissatisfaction. One Kalianappa Subraya, taking advantage of the feeling of loyalty still retained towards the old Coorg dynasty, raised an insurrection in the same year. The imbecility of the commandant of the troops and the timidity of the Collector gave courage to what was at first a mere riot. The insurrection spread, and the troops retreated from Puttúr to Mangalore. The rebels followed and sacked the civil offices and jail in the face of the troops, but soon retired and broke up into small gangs of marauders. These were speedily dispersed, and the ringleaders seized and punished; and in a very short time the whole country was quieted. At no time was this insurrection formidable; the men were armed with clubs and a few matchlocks, and a determined front would have broken it at any time. The records were destroyed, however, and much property plundered. In 1860, the Province was divided into two Districts, North and South Kanara, of which the former was transferred to the Bombay Presidency in 1862.

Population.—The population of the District has been enumerated from time to time. Before 1871, the returns were made up by the village officers as part of their ordinary duty. An elaborate and complete Census of the District, taken in 1871, disclosed a total population of 919,513 persons, of whom 787,183 were Hindus, 82,803 Muhammadans, and 49,517 Christians, and 10 'others.' A comparison of these figures with earlier estimates shows a steady increase of the Christians as compared with the Muhammadan and Hindu population. Out of the total male population 62·5 per cent. are workers, of whom 46·9 per cent. live by agriculture and manual labour. The inhabitants of South Kanara are of four races—Hindus, half-caste Portuguese, Arabians, and aborigines. The Hindus may be divided into two classes — those

undoubtedly of Aryan descent, such as the Saraswat Bráhmans, and perhaps the Konkán Bráhmans; and those probably of the Dravidian stock, Sivali Bráhmans, Bants, Jains, and perhaps Koragars and Holyars. Of the half-caste Portuguese, native Christians (originally immigrants from Goa) form a considerable part. The Moplás, of Arab descent, profess the Muhammadan faith. The aborigines include Malekudis, Koragars, and probably the Holyars, the latter being Pariahs or out-castes. The Malekudis are an aboriginal race inhabiting the forests, many of whom have either migrated to the coffee plantations or remain in a state of serfdom to the proprietors. They practise the nomadic system of agriculture, known as *kumári*. The Hindus of South Kanara are divided into Bráhmans, Kshattriyas, Chettis, and Súdras. Of the so-called Bráhmans, a very large section are cultivating Bráhmans, arbitrarily elevated to that caste, and not acknowledged by the legitimate or Aryan Bráhmans. The Jains in 1871 numbered 8339. Of the Christians, 2099 belong to the Basel Mission (founded in 1838), and the rest are Roman Catholics, divided between the Goa and Cochin Missions. The Christians are not confined to the towns, but mingle with the other castes in every occupation. There are a few followers of the Bráhma Samáj in Mangalore. The chief languages spoken are —apart from the European tongues and the Hindustání of foreigners—Tulu, Malayálam, Kanarese, and Konkáni. Tulu, the language of Tuluva, is spoken generally between Udipi and Kumbla, by perhaps 180,000 people; south of the Puiswinni river, and elsewhere with Moplás, Malayálam is the prevailing tongue. Kanarese, being the official language, is understood everywhere. Konkáni is the domestic language of some castes, and of all the Goa Christians.

The only places with a population exceeding 2000 are Mulki, Udipi, Kárkal, Bantwal, and Mangalore. Some towns returned in the Census Report as containing over 5000 are mere villages with populous hamlets attached. MANGALORE is the most important town in the District, and the only municipality. It has a population of 29,712 persons, and a municipal revenue of £3000.

Agriculture.—The staple crop of South Kanara is rice. Cocoa-nut gardens are numerous along the coast, and areca plantations in the interior. Gram, beans, hemp, *rági*, sugar-cane, tobacco, and cotton are grown, but not to any extent. The land is thus classified according to its capacity for irrigation—*byle*, or rich wet land; *mazal*, or middling wet land; and *bettu*, or land watered only by the rainfall. On *byle* land of the best quality, three rice crops can be raised in the year; on the best *mazal* land, two crops; *bettu* land produces only a single crop. The *yenulu* or *karti* is the earliest rice crop of the season, on whatever description of land it may be grown. The seed is first sown in nurseries, which are highly manured, and the plants are afterwards

transplanted. In about two months after transplantation, the crop comes into ear, and in about twenty-one days more is ready for reaping. Experiments have been made to introduce Carolina rice, but have not been generally attended with success. No statistics of the cultivated area are available. The ruling prices of food grains, etc., per *garce* of 9600 lbs. avoirdupois, in South Kanara in 1870-71 were—for best rice, £33, 14s.; paddy, £14, 10s.; gram, £62, 10s.; and wheat, £62, 10s. The wages of day-labourers have not increased since 1850, but smiths and bricklayers, who in that year obtained 6d., now get 9d., and carpenters now receive 1s. who then got 9d. The Holiyars, answering to the Pariahs of Madras and the Mhars of Bombay, are a class who live by hire as unskilled labourers. They are paid in paddy or rice; and their wages are subject to deductions on account of debts generally contracted by them to meet the expenses of marriage. For gathering the harvest and storing it up they are not paid at so much per day, but receive one-eleventh of the crop; so also for preparing rice from paddy—they receive 6 lbs. of rice for preparing 84 lbs. At the time of transplanting and reaping, females are largely employed, and are generally paid 4 lbs. of rice per day. Before the British rule, the Holiyars were the slaves of the *wargdárs* (proprietors); and even to this day they remain in a state of modified serfdom. But the coffee estates are drawing large numbers from their original homes, and the labour market is rapidly becoming ruled by the ordinary laws of supply and demand. Almost all land is private property, some unclaimed waste, and lands escheated to Government being the only exception. The whole is divided into estates (*wargs*), which include cultivated, cultivable, and waste lands, but only the cultivated portion is assessed. Any new cultivation is assessed at certain fixed rates according to the description of soil. As long as the proprietor pays the assessment, Government does not interfere, and no cultivation accounts are kept, the assessment being fixed on the whole estate and not on each field. Some over-assessed lapsed estates are temporarily granted for cultivation below the standard assessment. Formerly *mul-pattás* (permanent leases) were given for such lands, but the practice has now been discontinued. The tenures between the proprietor (*wargdár*) and the tenant (*wakkal*) are: *múlgeni* or permanent leases at a fixed rent, generally granted on payment of a premium—in old leases the rent is usually paid in money, in recent leases in kind; *chalgeni*, yearly or temporary leases—rent generally paid in kind, sometimes partly in money and partly in kind. The *múlgeni* tenure is transferable, and the holder may be regarded as a subordinate proprietor rather than a tenant. The *múlgeni* tenants are in the proportion of 1 to 6 to the *chalgeni* tenants. The Government assessment on *múlgeni* lands is sometimes paid by the proprietor and sometimes by the tenant. That on *chalgeni* lands is

always paid by the proprietor. All the best rice land in the District is already under cultivation, but there is a considerable extent of waste within the limits of estates suitable for a single crop of rice. Favourable rates are given for bringing such land under cultivation. The Government assessment is paid to the *patel* or village head-man in five instalments, and forwarded monthly to the treasury. The following are the average rates of rent per acre paid by the tenants to their landlords:—

	On *Múlgeni.*	*Chalgeni.*
Byle, or 3 crop land, ...	Rs. 20 to Rs. 26	Rs. 16 to Rs. 20
Mazal, or 2 crop land, ...	Rs. 12 " Rs. 16	Rs. 8 " Rs. 11
Bett, or 1 crop land, ...	Rs. 8 " Rs. 11	Rs. 4 " Rs. 6
Cocoa-nut and areca-nut gardens,	Rs. 30 " Rs. 40	Rs. 20 " Rs. 30

Out of this the proprietor pays the Government assessment. Rents have considerably increased of late years.

Commerce, etc.—The chief articles of trade are coffee, rice, salt, coir yarn, betel-nuts, oil, and seeds. The exports exceed the imports in value very considerably; but this is no evidence of the balance of trade being in favour of this District, as Mangalore and other Kanara ports are chiefly used to export the produce of the countries above the Gháts while part of the imports find their way through to other Districts, *viâ* Bangalore. The annual tonnage of ships is returned at 291,145, and their number at 3833. The chief articles of import are piece-goods, cotton, twist, yarn, oils, and salt. In 1875-76, the total imports were valued at £183,250, and the exports at £781,672. Of the exports, £400,000 represent coffee, and £175,000 rice; of the imports, the chief item is £110,000 for piece-goods and yarn.

The Basel Mission and the Carmelite Mission are the most notable institutions in the District. The Basel Mission has a large shop for the sale of European goods, a tile manufactory, a weaving shed, and a flourishing printing establishment, which give employment to converts.

Revenue History.—In 1800, Major (afterwards Sir Thomas) Munro was appointed Collector of Kanara. The exactions of Haidar and Tipú, though resulting in a large nominal increase of revenue, which was never fully collected, had seriously impoverished the country. In order to place the revenue on a satisfactory footing, Major Munro struck off a portion of the Mysore augmentation, and took the original Bednúr assessment with part of the Mysore additions as a basis. His object was to fix a limit to the Government demand which would be within the means of the proprietors to pay. Some estates were then unable to pay even this limited demand, and a temporary abatement was made in such cases, to be withdrawn on cultivation improving. It was laid down as a general rule that the assessment on estates, even on

the most productive, ought never to be raised higher than it had been at some former period. During the succeeding seventeen years, the revenue did not improve, and collections were realized with increasing difficulty. It was considered that the Munro Settlement pressed heavily in some cases, and it was decided therefore to revise it. The Board of Revenue were of opinion that the best universal standard would be the average collections from each estate during the preceding seventeen years; and the Harris Settlement, or 'Tarow,' fixed on these principles, has continued to the present day.

During the years immediately following the 'Tarow' Settlement, the collections did not in any year attain the standard then fixed; and owing to bad crops, low prices, and other causes, large annual remissions had to be granted. In 1831, the Collector, Mr. Viveash, permanently reduced the assessment on some over-assessed estates, and made arrangements to bring others up to the Tarow by instalments. Since that time no change has been made, and the District has improved rapidly, the assessment being collected with ease and punctuality. The Viveash arrangement has never been formally sanctioned by the Board of Revenue, so that the permanent reductions ('Board *shifarras*') are liable to be cancelled, and the 'Tarow' Settlement reimposed on any general revision of the assessment on such estates. The amount of such reductions is, however, small (£1003). Lands newly taken up for cultivation are assessed with reference to their capability for producing rice, the staple crop of the District.

Administration.—The revenue of the District from all sources in 1836-37, the first year for which records remain, was £263,012 (including North Kanara, since transferred to the Bombay Presidency); and the total expenditure on civil administration, £66,928. In 1850-51, the revenue (still including North Kanara) amounted to £285,649, and the expenditure to £75,654. In 1870-71, after the loss of North Kanara, the revenue was £233,776, and the expenditure, £67,729. The principal source of revenue is the land, which yielded £116,189 in 1871; salt yielded £53,277; excise on spirits and drugs, £13,784. The total number of estates upon the rent-roll of the District in 1870-71 was 40,762, held by 40,494 registered proprietors or coparceners; average land revenue paid by each, nearly £3. South Kanara is divided into the 5 *táluks* of Mangalore, Kassergod, Upparangadi, Udipi, and Kundapur. There are 367 miles of good road in the District, costing £4037 a year to maintain. The principal lines are from Mangalore to the various *gháts* which lead into Mysore and Coorg. There are no canals or railroads, and the coast road is not practicable for wheel traffic, but there is excellent sea communication by country craft, and, to other Districts, by steamer. The number of magisterial courts in 1870-71 was 15, and of civil and revenue

courts, 17. The total police force in 1871 numbered 659 men, being 1 to every 8 miles and to every 1393 of the population. The total cost of this force was £8235. It is distributed over 54 stations, and in 1871 made 1623 arrests, resulting in 554 convictions. There are 103 Government and inspected schools, teaching 4007 pupils, of whom 447 are girls. Education until late years was more backward than in the eastern Districts, but great strides in elementary teaching have been made since the local boards were introduced. Good schooling of a high class is obtainable at the Mangalore provincial school, which teaches 257 boys, at an annual cost of a little over £705. The Postal Department costs rather less than £1200 per annum. The receipts barely cover the expenditure.

Medical Aspects.—The District is generally healthy, but fever and bowel complaints are not uncommon. The rainfall averages about 140 inches per annum. The mean temperature on the seaboard is 84° F. The prevailing epidemic disease is fever. It is most common during the monsoon (June to October), and is probably due to the excessive damp and the malarial poison developed from decaying vegetation. The agricultural classes, owing to their close proximity to the jungles, are the chief sufferers. In the neighbourhood of the Gháts, jungle fever, enlarged spleens, and debilitated constitutions are more or less common. The only really epidemic disease is small-pox, though in 1876 a mild form of cholera, or more probably bowel complaint, caused many deaths. Small-pox is chiefly prevalent during the months of February and March. It is of a severe type, and attacks the poorer classes. The medicines prescribed by the native practitioners are chiefly decoctions, and ointments prepared from herbs, roots, drugs, and spices. They invariably prescribe three things at the same time:—(1) A decoction or a charm to be taken internally, (2) an ointment to be applied externally, and (3) a *kanjí* or rice-water, with several medicines mixed in it to be taken as a diet. The best-known indigenous medicines of this District are—Cannabis indica, Catechu Ingram, Chiretta, Datura alba, galls, and sarsaparilla.

Kanárak.—Ruined temple in Purí District, Orissa; situated on the sea-shore of the Bay of Bengal, 19 miles north-west of Purí town. Lat. 19° 53′ 25″ N., long. 86° 8′ 16″ E. This temple forms one of the most exquisite memorials of sun-worship in India—one of the religions of the Vishnuvite type into which Buddhism disintegrated, and which afterwards gave place to another form of Vishnuvism, represented by Jagannáth. According to the Orissa records, it was built between 1237 and 1282 A.D. It is now a picturesque ruin, looking down upon the sea. No traces of the outer wall remain, the Marhattá officers having carried away the stones as building materials to Purí; and of the temple itself, which in a complete state would have consisted of

four chambers, only a single one, the hall of audience, survives. Its great doorway, facing the east, is blocked up by masses of stone and festooned by creepers. In front rises a huge mound of jungle-covered rubbish, the remains of the outer hall of offerings. Sculptures in high relief, but of an indecent character, cover the exterior walls, and bear witness to an age when Hindu artists worked from nature. The nymphs are beautifully shaped women; the elephants move along at the true elephant trot, and kneel down in the stone exactly as they did in life. Clubmen, griffins, warriors on prancing horses, colossal figures of grotesque and varied shape, stand about in silent groups. Each of the four doorways, on the north, south, east, and west, has two lintels of chlorite,—a bluish, slate-like stone, very hard, and exquisitely polished. On these lintels rest massive beams of iron, supporting the wall above. The eastern entrance was, till some years ago, surmounted, as in other Orissa temples, by a chlorite slab, on which the emblems of the seven days of the week, with the ascending and descending nodes, are carved. The beauty of this elaborate piece proved a more fatal enemy than time, and tempted English antiquaries to try to remove it by sea to the museum at Calcutta. A grant of public money was obtained; but it sufficed only to drag the massive block a couple of hundred yards, where it now lies, quite apart from the temple, and as far as ever from the shore. A pyramid-shaped roof rises by terraces of exquisitely carved granite, divided into three tiers, to a lotus-crowned pinnacle; the whole covered with sculptures of elephants, horses, cavalry, and foot soldiers in endless processions. Innumerable busts of nymphs stand out from the mass of carving; images of the four-headed Bráhma look towards the sea. If this ungrudging labour was lavished on merely the outer hall of offerings, one may judge of the magnificence of the towered sanctuary, whose ruins now constitute the jungle-covered hill behind. This inner edifice seems to have been never completed, as the foundation of the internal pillars, on which the heavy dome rested, gave way before the outer halls were finished. Its completed size may be inferred from the proportions of other temples belonging to the same order; and a restored elevation of it will be found in Mr. James Fergusson's *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, p. 422, ed. 1876. The enormous pyramidal roof of the still existing outer chamber rests on walls 60 feet high, and rises a further 64 feet above them. It forms a landmark along the coast, which ships still sight on their passage up the Bay of Bengal; and inaccuracy in the bearings or neglect to use the lead constantly wrecked vessels on the shore. The villagers explained such mishaps by a story of a huge lodestone (*Kumbhar-pathar*) on the summit of the tower, which, like Sinbad the sailor's rock, drew the unhappy ships on the sands; and they relate how a Musalmán crew at length scaled the temple and carried off the

fatal magnet. The priests, they say, forthwith abandoned the desecrated shrine, and migrated with their god to Purí.

Kanauj.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the south bank of the Ganges. Area, 209 square miles, of which 135 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 117,141; land revenue, £20,637; total Government revenue, £23,738; rental paid by cultivators, £35,158; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 0⅞d.

Kanauj.—Ancient city in Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 2′ 30″ N., long. 79° 58′ E.; pop. (1872), 17,093, consisting of 10,864 Hindus and 6229 Muhammadans. Lies on the west bank of the Káli Nadi, 5 miles above its junction with the Ganges and 32 miles south of Fatehgarh. The sacred river, which once flowed close beneath the city, has now receded some 4 miles north-eastward. Kanauj in early times formed the capital of a great Aryan kingdom, and the Gupta dynasty extended their sway over a large portion of Upper India. The prosperity of the city dates from a pre-historic period, and seems to have culminated about the 6th century after Christ. In 1018, it fell before Mahmúd of Ghazní, and again, in 1194, before Muhammad Ghori. In 1540, Humáyun here received his crushing defeat at the hands of Sher Sháh, which compelled him for the time to fly from India and renounce the empire of Bábar. The existing ruins extend over the lands of five villages, and occupy a semicircle fully 4 miles in diameter. Their material consisted chiefly of brick, so that only the foundations of the principal buildings now remain; and as the bricks are constantly employed for fresh edifices, the traces of the ancient city grow scantier every day. The present town covers the ravines and mounds of the cliff which once bordered on the Ganges bed. Among the relics of antiquity, the shrine of Rájá Ajaipál ranks first in interest, having been erected, in all probability, by the Jaipál conquered by Mahmúd of Ghazní, and killed in 1021 A.D. by the Chandel Rájá of Kálinjar. The *Jamá Masjid*, or Cathedral Mosque, also dates back to Hindu times, its pillars exhibiting traces of early carving, with florid details of sculpture, too idolatrous for the handicraft of Musalmán workmen. It still bears the name of Sítá's Kitchen (Sítá-ki-rasoi), and is said to have been converted to its present use by Ibráhím Sháh of Jaunpur about 1400 A.D. North-west of the town stand the later Muhammadan tombs of Bálá Pir and his son, Shaikh Mehndi, dating from about 1650. Other Musalmán mausoleums cover surrounding fields. The present inhabitants live for the most part in huts built up against the ancient walls. It formed one of the great traditional centres of Aryan civilisation. Hinduism in Lower Bengal dates its legendary origin from a Bráhman migration southwards from this city, circ. 800 or 900 A.D. To this day all Bráhmans in the

Lower Provinces trace their descent to one or other of the five Bráhmans from Kanauj.

Kan-baing.—Revenue circle in Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 2433; gross revenue, £1259.

Kánchanjangá. — An immense mountain peak in the Eastern Himálayas, on the boundary between Sikkim and Nepál. Lat. 27° 42′ 5″ N., long. 88° 11′ 26″ E. The second loftiest measured mountain in the world; elevation, 28,176 feet.

Kánchanjhau.—A lofty spur of the Himálayas, forming the northern boundary line of Sikkim.

Káncharapára.—Village and station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, on the northern boundary of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; 28 miles from Calcutta.

Kánchívaram (*Kánchipúr*).—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras. —*See* CONJEVERAM.

Kandahár (*Candahar*).—Chief town of the Province of the same name in Afghánistán; situated in lat. 31° 37′ N., and long. 65° 30′ E., between the Argandáb and Tarnak river, 89 miles south-west of Khelát-i-Ghilzái, 233 miles south-west of Ghazní, 318 south-west of Kábul, and 380 south-east of Herát. The following account of the town is condensed from Colonel Macgregor's *Gazetteer;* but as Kandahár lies beyond the British Frontier, no responsibility rests with the Government of India for any facts or opinions here offered.

The population of the city of Kandahár has been very variously estimated: Elphinstone gives 100,000, Hough 80,000, Masson 25,000 to 30,000, Ferrier 30,000, Court 25,000, and Bellew 15,500. But these great discrepancies may be reconciled by supposing that the population increases and diminishes according as the government is protective or oppressive. Kandahár is probably capable of holding from 50,000 to 80,000 inhabitants. Ferrier states that one-fourth of the population are Bárakzáis, one-eighth Ghilzáis, one-eighth various Duráni tribes, and one-half Parsíváns and Hindus; and that there are no Jews or Armenians in the city. The town is situated on a level plain covered with cultivation. On the south and east are detached hills, on the north and west a low ridge. Its shape is an irregular oblong, the length being from north to south, with a circuit of 3 miles 1006 yards. It is surrounded by a ditch, 24 feet wide and 10 feet deep, and by a wall which is 20½ feet thick at the bottom, 14½ feet thick at the top, and 27 feet in height. This wall is made of mud hardened by exposure to the sun, without revetment of stone or brick. The length of the west face is 1967 yards, of the east 1810, of the south 1345, and of the north 1164. There are six gates, viz. the Bardúrání and Kábul on the east face, the Shikárpur on the south, the Herát and Topkhána on the west, and the 'Idgah on the north. The

gateways are defended by six double bastions, and the angles are protected by four large circular towers. The curtains between the bastions have 54 small bastions distributed along the faces. From the Herát gate a street runs through the city to the Kábul gate; and another commencing from the Shikárpur gate leads to the citadel, crossing it at right angles near the centre. At the point of their intersection is a large dome 50 yards in diameter, called the Chársú. These four principal streets are about 40 yards wide, and are lined with shops and houses. They are named after the gates to which they respectively lead from the Chársú, except in the case of the street which goes to the citadel, and is named the Sháhí *bázár*. This street is very narrow both at its south and north entrances, and leads first into an open space in front of the citadel, having the Nikára Khána on its west. There are smaller and narrower streets, which run from the principal ones towards the city walls (all crossing each other at right angles), between which and the houses there is a road about 25 yards wide all round the city. The houses generally are built of sun-dried bricks and are flat-roofed, and some are upper-storied. The houses of the rich are enclosed by high walls, and contain three or four courts with gardens and fountains. Each court contains a building with several small apartments, and three or four halls reaching to the roof, supported by wooden pillars, carved and painted. The apartments open on the halls, and are filled up with paintings on the walls, and looking-glasses let into the recesses. There are some buildings with roofs formed with flat-arched domes, made of sun-burnt bricks, with a hole at the top in the centre to admit the light. These houses are to be seen chiefly in the suburbs outside the city, in ranges, containing several together; they have on one side doors, but no windows or regular fire-places. The citadel is situated at the north of the city. South of it is an open space called the Topkhána, which affords a place of arms; west of it is an open face, in which is situated the tomb of Ahmád Sháh-Dúrání, an octagonal structure overlaid outside with coloured porcelain bricks, and surmounted by a gilded dome surrounded by small minarets. It overtops all the surrounding buildings, and its dome attracts the attention of the traveller approaching the city from a distance. The pavement within is covered with a carpet, and a shawl is thrown over the sarcophagus of the monarch. The sepulchre itself is composed of a not very fine stone found in the mountains near Kandahár, but inlaid with wreaths of flowers of coloured marble. Twelve lesser tombs, of the children of the Abdálí, are ranged near. The interior walls are painted in devices, similar to those which adorn the exterior, but the execution is more regular, and the colours, having been less exposed, are fresher and more brilliant. The lofty dome above the centre imparts an air of grandeur to the little temple,

and its windows of trellis-work in stone admit a solemn and pleasing light.

The trade between Kandahár and Herát and Mashad is carried on principally by Persians, who bring down silk (raw and manufactured), copper utensils, guns, daggers, swords, precious stones (turquoise), brocade, gold and silver braiding, Belgian ducats, horses, kurks, carpets, etc., and take back wool, felts, postins and skins of the fox, wolf, etc. Till 1830 the trade was considerable, and also during the British occupation; but after the return of Kohan Dil Khán in 1843, his tyranny drove away the principal merchants. The principal manufactures of Kandahár are silks, felts for coats, and rosaries of a soft crystallized silicate of magnesia, found near the city. The vine is very extensively cultivated in the suburban gardens of Kandahár, which produce no less than 19 different kinds of grapes. The *bázárs* are well supplied with good and cheap provisions, and excellent fruit is abundant, — apricots, pomegranates, quinces, figs, plums, peaches, cherries, apples, mulberries, etc. Dried fruit forms the great staple of the place.

History.—From the remotest times, Kandahár must have been a town of much importance in Asia, as its geographical position sufficiently indicates, it being the central point at which the roads from Herát, Seistán, Ghor, India, and Kábul unite, and the commercial mart of these localities. Kandahár is supposed to have been one of the seven cities built in the interior of Asia by Alexander the Great, on the ground that Kándar or Kandahár is an abbreviation of the name Iskandar. From the hands of Alexander, Kandahár is supposed to have passed into the power of the Seleukides, whose history is involved in obscurity. It is scarcely possible to determine what its condition was under the dominion of the Parthians and Sassanides, for the history of Kandahár at that time is enveloped in darkness, which lasted nearly to the period when the successors of Muhammad invaded Persia; but it appears certain that the Arabs penetrated into it in the first age of the Híjira. In A.D. 865, Yákúb-ben Leis, founder of the dynasty of the Soffarides, possessed himself of Kandahár; the Sassanides drove out his successors, and it was taken from them by the famous Mahmúd Ghaznaví, whose dynasty was overthrown by that of the Ghorides. Under these last, Kandahár fell by turns into the hands of petty ambitious chiefs, who all succumbed to the 'Seljukides.' These possessed it till Sanjar, a prince of that dynasty, was overthrown by the Túrkomans, who were established in the town in 1153. A few years after, it fell under the power of Ghiáz-ud-dín Muhammad, a Ghoride prince. Alá-ud-dín Muhammad, Sultán of Khaurism, took it in 1210; and his son was dispossessed by the famous Jahángír Khán in 1222. The descendants of that conqueror allowed it to be wrenched from

them by the prince of the dynasty of Malek-kurt, who were succeeded by the chiefs of the country till the period at which Timúrlane invaded and took possession of it (1389); at his death it became part of the dominions of his son, Sháh-Rokh. The Timurides retained it till 1468, at which epoch the death of the Sultán Abú Sayyid caused the dismemberment of the Empire. After this time, Kandahár and some surrounding Districts formed an independent State. In 1512, it was in the power of a chief called Sháh Beg, who was dispossessed by the famous Bábar, founder of the dynasty of the Mughals in India, to whose dominions it was annexed. Not long afterwards, Kandahár was seized by the Persians, and, after falling into the hands of the Mughals (from whom the Persians regained it in 1620), it was seized by the Uzbeks, who were not driven out till 1634. It again changed hands from time to time, and during the last 150 years has figured conspicuously in history. In 1737, Nadír Sháh, with an army of 100,000 men, blockaded the place for 18 months. It was then stormed, and after a gallant resistance the commandant surrendered. In 1834, Sháh Shujá marched against Kandahár with 22,000 men, but was compelled, after a desperate series of struggles lasting 54 days, to retire. This was the last unaided attempt of the Sadozáis to re-take Kandahár; the next time Sháh Shujá appeared on the field, it was with the support of the British Government. The army of the Indus took possession of Kandahár on the 20th April 1839, without any resistance being attempted. On the march of the army to Ghazní and Kábul, a force of three batteries of artillery, and two regiments of infantry and a regiment of cavalry was left. This was afterwards increased, and General Nott arrived to take command in November 1839. Throughout 1840 and most of 1841, affairs remained quiet at Kandahár, thanks to the good management of Rawlinson and Nott. But in September of the latter year, the first signs of the coming storm were visible in the stoppage of communication between Kandahár and Ghazní. No attempt, however, was made to lay siege to Kandahár by the rebel Duránís. An army of them under Safdar Jang, Sadozái, hovered about in the vicinity, plundering the villages, and by every possible means urging the inhabitants to join in an attack on the British troops. In the beginning of March 1842, he commenced to approach too closely to the city itself; and that general moved out to meet him, leaving 2600 men in the city. He signally defeated Safdar Jang; but in his absence an attempt was made to carry the place by a night assault. During the forenoon of the 10th March 1842, bodies of the enemy, horse and foot, were observed assembling from all quarters, taking up a position near old Kandahár and the adjoining villages; and in the course of the day their number rapidly increased, parties from the main body moving round and establishing themselves in front

of the Shikárpur gate. As their object was evidently to attack the garrison, the Political Agent directed the inhabitants to shut their shops and remain within their houses, and precautions were taken to secure the gates by piling bags of grain inside. About 8 o'clock P.M., a desperate attack was made upon the Herát gate, and, owing to the darkness of the night, some combustibles were placed near it and ignited unperceived, and in a few minutes the gate was in flames. A party of 100 rank and file from the 2nd Regiment, and a company from the Sháh's 1st Infantry, were immediately ordered to support the guard at the gate, and two guns were also placed in position commanding the entrance. Dense masses of the enemy now collected at this point, keeping up an incessant and heavy fire, which was returned with great effect from the ramparts; but so reckless and daring were the assailants, that notwithstanding the fearful havoc among them, eight or ten men actually forced their way by tearing down the burning fragments of the gate, and scrambling over the bags of grain. These were instantly shot, and their fate, together with the galling fire from the walls, dismayed the attacking party, who retired about midnight after four hours' resolute fighting. Another attack took place at the Shikárpur gate about 9 P.M., and a similar attempt was made to fire it, which, however, failed, and the assailants were driven back. A small party also approached the Kábul gate, but the garrison being everywhere on the alert, the enemy were compelled to retire about 1 A.M. of the 11th, and when the day broke not a soul was visible. After this, a force was moved under Colonel Wymer to the relief of the brave garrison of Khelát-i-Ghilzái, on which, thinking that the diminution thus caused gave them another opportunity of attacking Kandahár, the Duráni rebels, 6000 strong, under Safdar Jang and Akbar Khán, moved down close to Kandahár, and took possession of some steep, rocky hills within a mile of the city walls. Their position was good, and some of their points strong, but they had no reserve, and were somewhat scattered. General Nott sent the 42d and 43d Regiments Native Infantry with 4 guns, under Colonel Stacey, to reconnoitre, followed by Her Majesty's 41st and artillery. At one o'clock, the force was in action. The Duránís crowned the rocks above the city, and on them our force marched, the light companies as a storming party, supported by the 43d and the artillery, who kept up a continual fire. From the position of the enemy, and the character of the ground, some loss followed,—about 30 killed and wounded, including 7 or 8 Europeans. After this, the hills on the opposite side were covered by large masses of the Duránís, who, however, soon gave way, and in great disorder all fled, striving to gain the Babawalí Pass. A horrible scene ensued here. Thinking to entrap the British troops, the Gházís had barricaded the pass, and the Duránís, horse and foot, unable to make way, rushed

round the base of the hills. Chase was given by Lieutenant Chamberlain with the cavalry and artillery in splendid style. The Duránis were driven completely from their position, and fled to their camp beyond the Argandáb. No other attempt was made against the city during General Nott's time; and on the 8th August 1843, he evacuated it on his march to Kábul, taking with him Timúr Mírzá, whom he had in vain endeavoured to induce to remain. Safdar Jang then took possession, but in four months he was driven out by Kohan Dil Khán, who returned from Persia. This chief commenced a reign of gross tyranny and spoliation, which reduced the inhabitants of Kandahár to the last ebb of despair—a state from which they were only relieved by his death in 1855. His son, Muhammad Sadík, then coming to Kandahár, seized the property and valuables of his deceased father, which proceeding giving great offence to his uncle Rahim Díl Khán, that chief invited the interference of Dost Muhammad, who accordingly arrived and took possession of the city in November 1855, apparently without opposition, and appointed his son, Ghulám Haidar Khán, governor. This chief was still governor when Lumsden's mission arrived in 1857, but he died soon after its withdrawal. Sher Alí Khán appears to have succeeded Ghulám Haidar Khán as governor of Kandahár, and on his becoming Amír, his full brother, Muhammad Amín Khán, was appointed in his stead. This chief, however, joined the rebellion against Sher Alí, and was killed in the battle of Kajbaz, on the 6th June 1865, where he had advanced to meet him. His brother, Muhammad Sharíf, fled to Kandahár, and after a vain attempt to raise partisans, surrendered to the Amír Sher Alí Khán, who consequently, on the 14th June 1865, took possession of Kandahár. After the defeat of Sher Alí Khán at Khelát-i-Ghilzái on the 17th of January 1867, Kandahár passed from his grasp to that of Azím Khán, his half-brother and rival. But after the battle on the Helmand on the 1st April 1868, Kandahár again fell into the power of Sher Alí through his son, Yákub Khán.

In the campaign of 1878-79, Kandahár was occupied by the British troops, and held by the Quetta column until the end of the war. The flight and death of Sher Alí, the Amír of Afghánistán, who had forced us into hostilities with him, practically brought the campaign to a close, and an advance which was contemplated by our Quetta column from Kandahár was countermanded before any operations of first-rate importance had been carried out from that base. Kandahár was restored to Afghánistán on the conclusion of peace with Yákub Khán and his acceptance of our terms in 1879.

On the resumption of hostilities to avenge the murder of our Ambassador, Sir Louis Cavagnari, Kandahár was reoccupied in September 1879 by a British force under General Stewart. The Wáli, or ruler,

appointed by Yákub Khán was not, however, disturbed, and continued to conduct the government of Kandahár city and province. In June 1880, Ayúb Khán, a claimant to the throne of Afghánistán, marched from Herat to occupy Kandahár. The troops of the Wáli mutinied, and joined Ayúb's force, which in July defeated a brigade of our troops under General Burrows, and invested Kandahár. General Roberts, however, proceeded from Kábul to Kandahár by a rapid and brilliant march, and completely defeated Ayúb Khán, who fled with a handful of followers to Herat. The British remain in undisturbed possession of Kandahár, but its permanent retention has now been decided against (Jan. 1881).

Kandapur.—Town in South Kanara District, Madras; situated in lat. 13° 38′ N., long. 74° 42′ E., 55 miles west of Mangalore. Pop. (1871), 2545; number of houses, 531. Formerly one of the principal ports of the Bednúr Ráj, after the disruption of the Vijáyanagar kingdom. In the 16th century, the Portuguese settled here and built a fort (which still exists a little inland from the village), and a strong, well-built redoubt on the sea-face, commanding the entrance to the river. On this redoubt now stands the Head Assistant Collector's office and residence. It was from Kandapur that General Matthews started on his march against Bednúr. After being for a quarter of a century under Mysore, the town fell to the British in 1799, and was included in the District of Kanara.

Kándhla.—Municipal town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 18′ 20″ N., long. 77° 19′ 5″ E.; pop. (1872), 11,026, consisting of 6085 Hindus and 4941 Muhammadans. Situated on low ground, a little west of the Eastern Jumna Canal, 33 miles south-west of Muzaffarnagar. Agricultural town, with small local trade. Manufacture of saltpetre. Police station and post office. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £694.

Kandh-máls.—Tract of country in Bod Tributary State, Orissa, now under a loose form of British administration. The country consists of a broken plateau, intersected by ridges of low hills, the last refuge of the aboriginal Kandh (Khond) race. The villages are few in number, and divided from each other by rugged peaks and dense forests; but a regular system of government on the aboriginal plan is maintained, the hamlets being distributed into *mutas*, each *muta* being under the supervision of its own chief. Throughout this wild tract, the Kandhs claim an indefeasible right in the soil. They assert that the whole of Bod and also the neighbouring country was once theirs, and that they have been gradually pushed back into the recesses of the hills by unscrupulous invaders. At any rate, the Kandh-máls were never more than nominally subject to the Bod Rájá, who was totally unable to control or coerce them. After the British Government discovered the frequency of human sacrifice among the Kandhs, an Agency was established

to put a stop to the practice (Act xxi. of 1845); and the Bod Rájá gladly ceded the Kandh-máls to us for the better suppression of these inhuman rites. The people are a wild, impulsive race; but the Commissioner of Orissa reports that for years they have lived peaceably under our rule. They pay no rent, and we take no revenue whatever from them, but merely keep order and prevent oppression by means of a *tahsíldár*, supported by a strong force of police. This officer's principal duties are to prevent, or put a stop to, blood feuds, to adjust dangerous disputes, and to take cognisance of any serious crime. The Bod Rájá now exercises no authority in the Kandh-máls. The tract contains 826 villages, 10,811 houses, and a total population in 1872 of 51,810 persons. Classified according to religion—Hindus, 16,473, or 31·8 per cent.; Muhammadans, 11; 'others,' 35,326, or 68·2 per cent.; total, 51,810, viz. 26,556 males and 25,254 females. Proportion of males in total population, 51·3 per cent. Classified according to race—Aboriginal tribes, 35,798, or 64·1 per cent., composed almost entirely of Kandhs (34,005); semi-Hinduized aborigines, 6831, or 13·2 per cent., of whom 6204 are Páns; Hindus, 9170, or 17·7 per cent., the most numerous castes being Magadha Goálás (2045), Suds (1733), and Surís (1629). The most valuable agricultural product is turmeric, of an unusually fine quality, which is bought up by traders from the plains. A regular police force, 55 strong, and a village watch of 119 men, maintain order. The Kandhs manifest a remarkable growing inclination towards education. The Commissioner recently reported that 'these people have submitted of their own wish, and indeed of their own motion, to a tax on liquor-shops, the proceeds of which are devoted to the establishment of schools. The tax has been realized without difficulty, and a number of schools have been established. The school-houses have been built and are maintained by the people themselves.' Charitable dispensary at Bispára. A fuller account of the interesting tribe inhabiting this tract will be found in the article on the ORISSA TRIBUTARY STATES.

Kándí.—Former Subdivision of Murshidábád District, Bengal. Area, 450 square miles, with 512 villages or towns, 55,909 houses, and a total population in 1872 of 235,227 persons. Hindus, 159,273, or 67·7 per cent.; Muhammadans, 74,158, or 31·5 per cent.; Christians, 5; 'others,' 1791; total, 235,227, viz. 111,324 males and 123,903 females. Proportion of males in total population, 47·3; density of population, 523 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·14; persons per village, 460; houses per square mile, 124; persons per house, 4·2. In 1873, the Subdivision of Kándí was abolished in consequence of transfers to and from Bírbhúm, and reconstituted as RAMPUR HAT SUBDIVISION.

Kándí (or *Jámu Kándí*).—Municipal town in Murshidábád District,

Bengal; situated in the extreme south-east of the District, at the point where the river Mor enters from Bírbhúm. Lat. 23° 58′ N., long. 88° 5′ 1″ E. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 10,452; Muhammadans, 1516; 'others,' 48; total, 12,016, viz. 5569 males and 6447 females. Municipal income in 1871, £551; expenditure, £448; rate of taxation, 11d. per head. Kándí owes much of its importance to the circumstance that it is the residence of the Rájás of Páikpárá, a wealthy and devout Hindu family. The founder of this family was Gangá Govind Sinh, the *bania* of Warren Hastings, who was born at Kándí, and retired thither in his old age with an immense fortune, which he devoted to the erection of shrines and images of Krishna. His name has acquired a traditional celebrity for the most magnificent *sraddha*, or funeral obsequies, ever performed in Bengal. These were celebrated in honour of his mother, and are stated to have cost 20 *lákhs* of rupees, or £200,000. The guests on the occasion included the Rájás and *zamíndárs* of half Bengal, presided over by the Bráhman Rájá Síb Chandra of Krishnagar, in Nadiyá. They are said to have been fed with fresh holy rice from Jagannáth, brought by relays of posts from Purí to Kándí.

Kandiáro.—*Táluk* of Haidarábád District, Sind, lying between 26° 54′ 30″ and 27° 15′ N. lat., and between 68° 7′ 45″ and 68° 30′ 30″ E. long. Pop. (1872), 47,768; area, 315 square miles; number of *tapás*, 7; number of villages, 71. Revenue in 1873-74, £11,024, of which £10,181 was derived from imperial and £843 from local sources.

Kandiáro.—Government village in the Kandiáro *táluk*, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind; situate on the Nasrát Canal, in lat. 27° 4′ N., and long. 68° 15′ E. Distant north-east from Tháru Sháh 10 miles, from Kamál Dero 6 miles, Darbelo 6 miles, Bhiria 10 miles, Mohbat Dero Jatoi 7 miles, Mohbat Dero Siál 10 miles, and Lákha 6 miles, with all which places it has road communication. The line of telegraph passes close to the town. Kandiáro is the headquarters station of a *mukhtiárkár* and *tapadár*, with their establishments, and has police lines for 11 men. There are, besides, a subordinate judge's court, post office, market, school-house, District bungalow, and *dharmsála*. The municipality, established in February 1861, had an income in 1873-74 of £260. Pop. (1872), 2558, consisting of 1074 Muhammadans, 750 Hindus (chiefly Lohános), and 734 others (probably Síkhs). The principal occupation of the people is agriculture, but the Hindu portion of the inhabitants are engaged in trade, which is mainly in grain and cloth. Manufactures of coarse paper and country cloth. The town of Kandiáro is said to have been built during the reign of the Delhi Emperor Jahángír. Before it was built, there was another in existence close to it, called Patoipur, which was abandoned owing to an unusual rise of the inundation waters.

The site of the present town was then chosen as being somewhat more elevated; and having at the time a large number of *kandi* trees growing upon it, the place took, it is supposed, from this circumstance the name of Kandiáro.

Kandiáwan.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated on the banks of the Ganges on the road from Salon to Mustáfábád, 22 miles from Rái Bareli town, and 6 from Mánikpur. Pop. (1869), 3632—namely, 3564 Hindus and 68 Muhammadans. Government school.

Kandilí.—Town in Narsinhpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 22° 57′ N., long. 79° 14′ 30″ E.; 1 mile from Narsinhpur, from which it is separated by the Singrí *nálá*. Pop. (1870), about 5000. Under the Gonds, Kandilí was a little village belonging to the Singpúr Subdivision, where the subordinate governor resided. Now, though the headquarters station is called Narsinhpur, the Government offices and houses of the Europeans are in Kandilí. The only manufacture is the weaving of common native cloth.

Kandukúr.—Town in Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 15° 12′ 20″ N., long. 79° 57′ E.; pop. (1871), 7101; number of houses, 1415. It is the headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name, and contains an old hill fort. Noted for its breed of cattle.

Kaner.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £200; tribute of £19 paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Kan-gaw. — Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 11 square miles; pop. (1876), 2728; gross revenue, £579.

Kángayam (*Kongium, Kongu*).—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 11° 1′ N., long. 77° 36′ E.; pop. (1871), 6553; number of houses, 1646. Formerly headquarters of the District, and, till 1874, of the Sub-Collector. Once famous for its breed of cattle. It is a busy market town, connected by good roads with 3 railway stations. In the name of this town lingers the only trace of the ancient kingdom of Kongu.

Kángra.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 31° 20′ and 33° N. lat., and between 75° 39′ and 78° 35′ E. long. Area (1878), 8988 square miles; population in 1868, 743,882 persons. Kángra forms the north-eastern District of the Jalandhar (Jullundur) Division. It is bounded on the south-west by Hoshiárpur District; on the north-west by the hill portion of Gurdáspur and the Native State of Chamba; on the north-east by the great Himálayan chain, which separates it from Thibet and the Chinese Empire; and on the south-east by the Native States of Bashahr, Mandi, and Biláspur. The administrative headquarters are at the cantonment of DHARMSALA, among the spurs of the Dháola Dhár.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Kángra is an artificial administrative division, comprising a vast and heterogeneous tract, which extends eastward from the plain country of the Bári and Jalandhar (Jullundur) Doábs, across two distinct Himálayan ranges, far into the heart of Thibet. In shape it forms two separate blocks, lying on either side of the outer Himálayan chain, which bounds the horizon of the Punjab plains. The western block consists of an irregular triangle, whose base lies upon the Hoshiárpur border, while the Native States of Chamba and Mandi constrict its upper portion to a narrow neck. Beyond this point, the eastern block expands once more like an hour-glass, and embraces the mid-Himálayan tract of KULLU, with the Thibetan Subdivisions of LAHUL and SPITI. The District thus naturally falls into three parts; the sub-Himálayan country of Kángra Proper, the central valleys of Kullu and Bangáhal, and the rugged outer region of the Thibetan slope. It consists almost entirely of immense mountain ranges, whose three parallel lines, with a transverse ridge, form four main basins, in each of which a great river takes its rise—the Beas (Biás), the Spiti, the Chenáb, and the Rávi. The Beas has its origin in the Rotang Mountains, north of Kullu, and, after flowing southward for about 50 miles, traverses the State of Mandi, and then drains the whole valley of Kángra Proper. The Spiti, rising in the Thibetan valley of the same name, runs due south to join the Sutlej (Satlaj) in the Native State of Bashahr. The Chenáb springs from the slopes of Lahúl, and runs north of the central Himálayas into the State of Chamba; while the Rávi, draining the Bangáhal valley, keeps to the south of the same chain and flows northwestward, also into Chamba. From the great variety of the different tracts included in the District by modern arrangements, it is impossible to assign any general physical peculiarities to the whole beyond their common characteristic as mountainous regions, intersected by snowy chains and scored by deep river valleys. The western portion, abutting on the Punjab plains, admits of cultivation, and supports a comparatively dense population; while the bare and sterile eastern glens are sparsely inhabited by a Thibetan race. Further particulars will be found under the separate headings of KANGRA PROPER, KULLU, LAHUL, and SPITI.

History.—The hills of Kángra Proper have formed for many centuries the dominions of numerous petty princes, all of whom traced their descent to the ancient Katoch kings of Jalandhar (Jullundur). According to the mythical chronology of the *Mahábhárata*, their dynasty first established itself in the country between the Sutlej and the Beas fifteen hundred years before the Christian era. In the 7th century A.D., Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, found the Jalandhar monarchy still undivided. At some later period, perhaps that of the Musalmán invasion, the Katoch princes were driven into the hills,

where Kángra already existed as one of their chief fortresses, and their restricted dominions appear afterwards to have fallen asunder into several minor principalities. Some of these now belong politically to Hoshiárpur District, while some still remain independent; but the States of Núrpúr, Síba, Goler, Bangáhal, and Kángra are included in the modern British Subdivision of Kángra Proper. In spite of constant invasions, the little Hindu kingdoms, secure within their Himálayan glens, long held out against the aggressive Musalmán power. In 1009, the riches of the Nágarkot temple attracted the attention of Mahmúd of Ghazní, who defeated the Hindu princes at Pesháwar, seized the fort of Kángra, and plundered the shrine of an immense booty in gold, silver, and jewels. But, thirty-five years later, the mountaineers rose against the Muhammadan garrison, besieged and retook the fort, with the assistance of the Rájá of Delhi, and set up a fac-simile of the image which Mahmúd had carried away. In 1360, the Emperor Firoz Tughlak again led a force against Kángra. The Rájá gave in his submission in time, and was permitted to retain his dominions; but the Muhammadans once more plundered the temple, and despatched the famous image to Mecca, where it was cast upon the high road to be trodden under the feet of the faithful. Two hundred years later, Akbar commanded in person an expedition into the hills, and succeeded in permanently occupying the fort of Kángra. The fruitful valley was made into an imperial demesne, and only the barren hills remained in the possession of the native chiefs. In the graphic language of Akbar's famous minister, Todar Mall, 'he cut off the meat and left the bones.' Yet the remoteness of the imperial capital and the natural strength of the mountain fastnesses encouraged the Rájput princes to rebel, and we find the Emperor Jahángír twice engaged in reducing his unruly Katoch vassals to subjection. In 1752, the Katoch principalities formed nominally part of the territories ceded to Ahmad Sháh Duráni by the declining Delhi court. But the native chieftains, emboldened by the prevailing anarchy, resumed their practical independence, and left little to the Duráni Sultán or to the Deputy, who still held the isolated fort of Kángra for the Mughal Empire. In 1774, the Síkh chieftain, Jái Sinh, obtained the fort by stratagem, but relinquished it, in 1785, to Sansár Chánd, Rájá of Kángra. This prince, by his vigorous measures, made himself supreme throughout the whole Katoch country, and levied tribute from his fellow-chieftains in all the neighbouring States. He found himself unable, however, to cope with the Síkh power in the plains; and, early in the present century, he attacked the hill State of Kahlúr, which called in the dangerous aid of the Gurkhás, already masters of the wide tract between the Gogra and the Sutlej (Satlaj). The Gurkhás responded to the call by crossing the latter river, and attacking the Katoches at Mahál Mori, in May 1806. The invaders

gained a complete victory, overran a large part of the hill country of Kángra, and kept up a constant warfare with the Rájput chieftains who still retained the remainder. The people fled as refugees to the plains, while the minor princes aggravated the general disorder by acts of anarchy on their own account. At length, after three years of lawlessness, Sansár Chánd determined to invoke the assistance of the Síkhs. Ranjít Sinh, always ready to seize upon every opportunity for aggression, entered Kángra and gave battle to the Gurkhás, in August 1809. After a long and furious contest, the Mahárájá was successful, and the Gurkhás abandoned their conquests beyond the Sutlej. Ranjít Sinh at first guaranteed Sansár Chánd the possession of all his dominions except the fort of Kángra and 66 villages, always allotted for the support of the garrison; but he gradually made encroachments upon all the hill chieftains, and at length, in 1828, the last portion of the District came finally into his hands. Kángra passed under the power of the British at the end of the first Síkh war in 1845; but the commandant of the fort held out for some time on his own account. When the Múltán (Mooltan) insurrection broke out in April 1848, emissaries from the plains incited the hill chieftains to revolt; and at the end of August in the same year, Rám Sinh, a Pathánia Rájput, collected a band of adventurers and threw himself into the fort of Sháhpur. Shortly afterwards, the Katoch chief rebelled in the eastern extremity of the District, and was soon followed by the Rájás of Jaswan and Ditárpur, and the Síkh priest, Bedi Bikráma Sinh. The revolt, however, was speedily suppressed; and after the victory of Gujrát, the insurgent chiefs received sentence of banishment to Almora, while Kángra subsided quietly into a British District. For the history of LAHUL, SPITI, and KULLU, see the articles on those Subdivisions.

Population.—The Census of 1868 returned the total number of inhabitants for the whole District at 743,882. The previous enumerations are not available for purposes of comparison, owing to their partial nature, and the subsequent changes of area; but in Kángra Proper, an increase of 102,286 persons, or 18·85 per cent., took place between 1850 and 1868. The Census in the latter year extended over a total area of 8762 square miles, and it disclosed a population as above, distributed among 740 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 159,515 houses. From these data, the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 87·18; villages or townships per square mile, ·08; houses per square mile, 18·02; persons per village, 1005; persons per house, 4·66. But these figures yield results which cannot in every case be compared with those of other Districts, as the population of the Kángra lowlands is comparatively thick, while that of the eastern glens is very scattered. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 393,571; females, 350,311; proportion of males, 52·91 per cent.

Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—130,564 boys; 114,424 girls; total children, 244,988, or 32·93 per cent. of the whole population. As regards religious distinctions, Hindus numbered 693,505; Muhammadans, 48,613; Síkhs, 1314; Christians, 277; and others, 173. The Hindu element thus enormously preponderates over the Muhammadan, the Musalmáns only forming small isolated colonies of immigrants, whilst the mass of the population have preserved their ancient faith. The Bráhmans were returned at 121,476; Rájputs, 139,639; Giraths, 113,959; Kanets, almost entirely confined to Kullu, 72,619; besides numerous minor tribes. In Spiti and Lahúl, the majority of the population consist of Thibetans, ruled over by Rájput landlords. Their religion is Buddhist, with a Hinduizing tendency. Throughout the rest of the hills, the substratum consists of aborigines, with a considerable Aryan admixture, dominated by a large Aryan body of Bráhmans and Rájputs. The District contained, in 1875-76, 6 municipal towns,—namely, DHARMSALA, 2024; NURPUR, 7151; JAWALAMUKHI, 2847; HARIPUR, 3839; SUJANPUR TIRA, 3393; and KANGRA, 6344.

Agriculture.—Out of a surveyed area, in Kángra Proper, of 1,462,363 acres, no less than 957,936 acres are returned as barren. Of the remainder, 413,497 acres, or 81 per cent., are already under the plough. In Kullu, Láhul, and Spiti, the area under cultivation forms only an insignificant fraction. The Census of 1868 returns the cultivated land of the whole District at 681 square miles, out of a total of 8762 square miles, being less than one-thirteenth of the entire surface. The staple crops include wheat and barley for the *rabi* or spring harvest, with rice and maize for the *kharíf* or autumn harvest. The ripening of grain depends largely on the elevation. Rice is the principal crop of the upper Kángra valleys, while maize composes the ordinary food of the upland people for six months of the year. Sugar-cane covers a large and increasing area in the neighbourhood of Kángra town. Tea cultivation, introduced experimentally by State agency shortly after the annexation, has taken root as an important industry, both in Kángra Proper and in Kullu. In 1872-73, the District contained 28 plantations, carried on by private English capital, and producing a gross out-turn of 428,655 lbs. of manufactured tea, valued at £65,000. Potatoes, also introduced by Government, now constitute a considerable crop. In Lahúl and Spiti, barley is the agricultural staple; but the former tract does not grow a sufficient quantity of grain for its own consumption, being largely supplied by importation from Kullu. Subdivision of land in Kángra has reached its lowest point, and most of the cultivators follow some other trade or avocation as a means of livelihood. Wages have risen largely of late years. Coolies in 1862 received at most 2 annas, or 3d. per diem;

in 1872, they received $3\frac{1}{2}$ annas, or $5\frac{1}{4}$d. Skilled labour commands from 9d. to 1s. per diem. Workmen on the tea plantations obtain, as a rule, 8s. per month. Prices in 1873 ruled as follows:—Wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; barley, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt.; rice, 13 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. 7d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The staple articles of external trade include the agricultural products of the District,—tea, rice, sugar, potatoes, spices, and drugs. The return trade, which centres on Jullundur (Jalandhar) and Hoshiárpur, comprises grain, cotton, tobacco, and European piece-goods. The Pálampur fair, established by Government with a view to fostering commerce with Central Asia, draws together a small concourse of Yarkandi merchants. The Lahúlís carry on an enterprising trade with Ládákh and the countries beyond the frontier, by means of pack-sheep and goats. The principal road of the District is the cart-road from Jullundur, separating into two branches at Kángra, one of which leads to Dharmsála and the other to Pálampur and the tea plantations. The total length of roads in the District in 1875 amounted to 714 miles.

Administration.—In 1868-69, the imperial revenue from Kángra District was returned at £85,824. By 1872-73, the total had decreased to £71,434, of which sum the land tax contributed £62,443. The only other items of importance were stamps, £4824, and excise, £2905. A small provincial and local revenue was also realized. The District staff ordinarily includes a Deputy Commissioner, 3 Assistant, and 2 extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials. In 1873-74, 9 magistrates exercised jurisdiction, together with 13 civil and revenue judges. The regular police force, including municipal establishments, consisted in 1872 of 407 officers and men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 1827 of the population and every 22·08 square miles of area. Crime is rare, the character of the people generally being that of simple and honest mountaineers. The District jail at Dharmsála contained in 1872 a daily average of 124 prisoners. Education still remains in a very backward state. The total number of children under instruction in 1872-73 amounted to 2936; the expense of their education was £1632, of which £1204 was defrayed by Government. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 5 *tahsíls.* In 1875-76, the 6 municipal towns had an aggregate revenue of £1515, or 1s. $2\frac{1}{8}$d. per head of the population (25,598) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The mean temperature of Kángra town was returned by Messrs. Schlagintweit as 52·9° in winter, 70° in spring, 80° in summer, and 67·70° in autumn. In 1873-74, the thermometer gave a

mean at Dharmsála of 70·35° in May, 73·5° in July, and 52·85° in December. The average annual rainfall amounts to 148 inches at Dharmsála, 76 at Kángra, 52 at Hamírpur, and 108 at Pálampur. The endemic diseases of the District include fever and goître; but scurvy also prevails to a large extent. The widespread cultivation of rice, by which the whole Kángra valley is converted into a swamp, has a very prejudicial effect upon health. The total number of deaths recorded in 1872 amounted to 18,227, or 24 per thousand, of which number 7643, or 10·27 per thousand, were due to fever. The District contains 5 Government charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1872 to 17,756 persons, of whom 509 were in-patients.

Kángra Proper.—Subdivision of Kángra District, Punjab, including the valleys of KANGRA and BANGAHAL. It consists of a number of parallel mountain ranges, offshoots of the Himálayan system, divided by longitudinal valleys, and rising to the north into the colossal chain of the Dháola Dhár, whose snowy peaks tower almost perpendicularly above the lesser hills at their base. The minor ridges have a general elevation of from 3000 to 4500 feet, but the loftiest peaks reach a height of nearly 16,000 feet above sea level. The mountains lie tossed about in the most irregular disorder, only resolvable by the eye of the geologist into their component systems. Ruined hill-forts crown the steeper crags, while every valley, slope, or gentle knoll teems with a dense population of industrious cultivators. The upper glens, which run far into the heart of the snowy range, present the most exquisite views,—their foreground filled with tillage and irrigated by tiny canals, while the background rises, through various gradations of tropical and alpine vegetation, to the cloud-like summits which close the prospect toward the north and east. The Beas (Biás), which drains the restricted Kángra valley, here presents the appearance of a wide mountain torrent, broken by frequent rapids, and swelling during the rainy season into a broad expanse where every rock or island is temporarily submerged. The Rávi runs through the Bangáhal glen, while the mountains above rise to the towering height of 20,000 feet. Glaciers extend far down their sides; but a few scattered villages, inhabited by aboriginal tribes, lie ensconced among the lower depressions. The population of Kángra Proper consists chiefly of Hindus, whose native Katoch princes derive their descent from the ancient dynasty of Jalandhar (Jullundur). (*See* KANGRA DISTRICT.) The modern cantonment of Dharmsála, on the spurs of the Dháola Dhár, forms the administrative headquarters. But the Rájput fortress and town of Kángra was the historical capital of the tract; and the shrine of Jawála Mukhi, built over an inflammable spring, still draws together large numbers of pilgrims.

Kángra.—*Tahsíl* of Kángra District, Punjab, lying between 31° 49′

30″ and 32° 23′ 30″ N. lat., and between 76° 10′ and 76° 43′ E. long., and forming a part of the Subdivision of Kángra proper. Area, 859 square miles; pop. (1868), 211,165, or 245 persons per square mile.

Kángra. — Municipal town and headquarters of Kángra District, Punjab; formerly the capital of a considerable Katoch State. Lat. 32° 5′ 14″ N., long. 76° 17′ 46″ E.; pop. (1868), 6448, consisting of 5019 Hindus, 1027 Muhammadans, 3 Síkhs, 29 Christians, and 370 'others.' The town, anciently known as Nágarkot, occupies both slopes of a hill, overlooking the Bánganga torrent. The older portion covers the southern declivity, while the suburb of Bháwan and the famous temple of Devi lie upon the northern escarpment. The fort, to which alone in strictness the name of Kángra belongs, crowns a precipitous rock, rising sheer above the Bánganga, and dominating the whole surrounding valley, of which from time immemorial it has formed the key. Once considered impregnable, it is open to attack from so many neighbouring eminences as to offer little opportunity of defence against modern artillery. The Katoch princes ruled the Kángra valley from pre-historic times till the advent of the British. During the Mughal period, the town apparently possessed a far larger population than at the present day; and it was held by the last Muhammadan governor long after he had become completely isolated from the remainder of the Delhi Empire. (*See* KANGRA DISTRICT.) The temple of Devi, twice plundered by the Musalmáns, ranks among the oldest and most wealthy shrines in India. After the British annexation, the District headquarters were originally fixed at Kángra; but since their removal to Dharmsála in 1855 the town has rapidly sunk into insignificance. Local trade centre; manufacture of country cloth, almost extinct; speciality of gold and enamel ornaments. Circuit-house, *tahsíli*, police station, charitable dispensary, post office, school-house, staging bungalow, *sarái*. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £409, or 1s. 3½d. per head of population (6344) within municipal limits.

Kangundi. — *Zamíndárí* estate in the south-western corner of North Arcot District, Madras, lying between 13° 35′ and 13° 45′ N. lat., and between 78° 16′ and 78° 35′ E. long., and containing 319 villages, 9642 houses. Pop. (1871), 51,916; area, about 333 square miles; *peshkash* (revenue) to Government, £2300 per annum. The general elevation of the country is about 2000 feet above sea level. The villages are nearly all stockaded, and the whole tract is more primitive in its aspect than the surrounding District.

Kan-gyí-doung. — Headquarters town of Thí-kweng township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 16° 54′ 30″ N., long. 64° 58′ E., on the right bank of the Dága river, about 15 miles from its junction with the Bassein. Pop. (1876), 2351, chiefly engaged in agriculture. Court-house and police station.

Kanhán.—River rising in lat. 21° 52′ N., long. 78° 39′ E., in the Sátpura Hills, Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; winds in a south-easterly direction through a series of small hills in the Ghargajgarh forests, past the ruined fort of Deogarh; receives the Jám below Lodhíkherá; and joins the Pench just above Kamthí, where a magnificent stone bridge spans the river. The united streams then flow on until they fall into the Wainganga (lat. 21° 5′ N., long. 79° 40′ E.) below Bhandára, about 140 miles from the source of the Kanhán.

Kanherí.—A barren hill in Bhandára District, Central Provinces, about 18 miles south-east of Bhandára; rising about 300 feet above the plain. Yields good building stone, besides hones, and white soft stone for pottery.

Kanjarapalli ('*Caguarapalli*' of Bartolomeo).—Town in Changuacheri District, Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 9° 4′ 30″ N., long. 76° 35′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), about 2000. A trading town on the main road from Kotayam to Madura, through Pirmaid and Gúdalúr. Situated at the foot of the *ghát* or pass, and inhabited chiefly by Muhammadan traders. Fra Paolino di S. Bartolomeo mentions it specially as having dealings across the *ghát* with Madura.

Kanjarda. — One of the petty States of Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £250, and tribute of £13 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Kanjiá.—Ancient town in a tract of same name, on the northern frontier of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Lat. 24° 23′ 30″ N., long. 78° 15′ E. Its first recorded ruler was a Bundela chief named Debi Sinh, whose son Sháhjí built the fort which stands on a hill to the south of the town. It is square, with a tower at each corner, and encloses about 2 acres, nearly covered with ruined buildings. In 1726, Sháhjí's descendant, Vikramáditya, was expelled by Hasan-ullá Khán, Nawáb of Kurwáí, and took refuge at Piprásí, a small village in the extreme north of the Kanjiá tract, where his descendant, Amrit Sinh, was living in 1870 on a rent-free estate of five villages. In 1758, the Peshwá's army drove out the Nawáb of Kurwáí, and the Peshwá conferred the tract on one of his officers, named Khandaráo Trimbak. His successor, Rámchándra Ballál (otherwise Rám Bhárí), on the cession of Ságar (Saugor) by the Peshwá in 1818, gave up Kanjiá and Malhárgarh, a neighbouring tract, receiving in lieu thereof the estate of Itáwá. In the same year, the British made over Kanjiá to Sindhia, who held it until the exchange of territory in 1860, when it was incorporated with Ságar District. In 1857, a party of Bundelas from the adjoining Native States turned out Sindhia's officer, and forcibly set up Amrit Sinh as their ruler. After a few days he escaped from the unwelcome dignity; but the Bundelas plundered the place;

and only decamped eight months later on hearing of the approach of Sir Hugh Rose. The tract suffered under native rule from fiscal oppression, but has improved since the new settlement of the land revenue. There is a boys' school, and a market is held every Tuesday.

Kanjikovil.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 11° 22′ N., long. 77° 38′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 5300; number of houses, 1184.

Kankanhalli.—*Táluk* in Bangalore District, Mysore State. Area, 401 square miles, of which 109 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 73,515, including 3884 Muhammadans, 4 Jains, and 773 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £6874, or 2s. per cultivated acre. Among special products are tamarinds and cocoa-nuts.

Kankanhalli.—Municipal town in Bangalore District, Mysore State; on the right bank of the Arkavati river, 36 miles south of Bangalore. Lat. 12° 32′ 50″ N., long. 77° 27′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 4671, of whom 4189 are Hindus; municipal revenue (1874-75), £71; rate of taxation, 4d. per head. Identified by Dr. Burnell with the Konkanapur mentioned by Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese pilgrim of the 7th century. There is a fort still in existence, built by a local chief, inside which stands an ancient temple of Ranganátha. The town was twice devastated by Tipú Sultán, to prevent its being of use to the British army. A weekly fair is held on Thursdays, attended by 2000 persons; and in the neighbourhood are many cocoa-nut groves. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name.

Kánker.—A feudatory chiefship in the south of Ráipur District, Central Provinces, lying north of the State of Bastar. Pop. (1872), 43,552, of whom nearly two-thirds are Gonds, residing in 356 villages and 8064 houses, on an area of 639 square miles. The country is hilly, and ruined by *dáhya* or nomadic cultivation, except in the eastern portion along the valley of the Mahánadi, where stretch some fertile plains. Rice, *kutkí*, *kodo*, lac, gum, etc., constitute the chief products. Rájá Narhar Deo, the chief, belongs to a very old Rájput family; and according to tradition, his ancestors were raised to the throne by a vote of the people. When the Haihai Bansí line ruled in Chhattísgarh, Kánker occupied a dignified position among the feudatory dependencies, such as Bastar, Sambalpur, etc.; and the Rájás held with it the valuable Khálsa *parganá* of Dhamtari. The total revenue of the estate in 1868 was £996, of which £621 was derived from the land. In 1877, the gross revenue was estimated at £1500. The chief maintains a military establishment of 4 elephants, 12 horses, 1 camel, and 105 foot soldiers.

Kankhal.—Town in Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 55′ 45″ N., long. 78° 11′ E.; pop. (1872), 4904, chiefly Bráhmans attached to the Hárdwár temple, who intermarry only with those of Jawálapur. Lies on the west bank of the Ganges; distant from

Sahāranpur 38 miles east, from Roorkee (Rúrkí) 16 miles north-east, from Hárdwár 1 mile south. The temple of Daksheswara, a synonym of Siva, stands to the south of the town, and marks the spot where, according to the *Puránas*, Mahádeo spoilt the sacrifice of Daksha, and Sati, daughter of Daksha and wife of Siva, immolated herself in the fire. Substantially built houses, their walls decorated with fantastic paintings. Picturesque river front, laid out in tasteful gardens. Forms part of the Hárdwár Municipal Union; police outpost, and village school. For municipal statistics see HARDWAR.

Kánkiná.—Market village in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Tístá river. Exports of jute, tobacco, and sugar.

Kánkrej (or *Tara*). — Petty State within the Pálanpur Agency, Guzerat, Bombay. Area, 507 square miles; pop. (1872), 37,771. Bounded on the north by Pálanpur, south by Rádhanpur State, east by a Subdivision of Baroda territory, and west by Terwára and Diodár (estates in Pálanpur). Total revenue, £4000; tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, £513.

Kánkrej is a flat, open, and tolerably wooded country, situated on both sides of the Banás river. The soil is of two sorts—sandy and black—and produces the usual rainy weather crops; when irrigated, it yields two harvests. The staples are wheat and millet. Water is found in wells from 30 to 40 feet below the surface. Like Pálanpur, the climate is dry and hot, and the prevailing disease is fever. This District was formerly subordinate to the Mahi Kánta Agency; but, owing to its proximity to Pálanpur, it was in 1844 transferred to this Superintendency. The first connection of the British Government with Kánkrej dates from the formation of the Mahi Kánta Agency in 1819-20. Kánkrej comprises the chiefships of Thára, Un, and Wára; and, with the exception of the Thárá estate, which is under a Rájput, is in the possession of families of Rájput origin, who, by intermarriages with Kolí women, now rank as Kolís. The present (1876-77) chief of the Thárá Estate is Thákur Sardár Sinh Waghela, a Hindu of the Rájput caste, twenty-five years of age. His residence is at Thára village.

Kánksiáli.—One of the petty States of Hallár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £120; and tribute of £8 is paid to the British Government, and £3 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Kánksiáli (*Coxeali*).—Distributary of the Jamuná river, Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Favourite night anchorage on the boat route between Calcutta and the Eastern Bengal Districts

Kankuppa.—*Táluk* in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore, with head-quarters at Jagalúr. Area, 365 square miles, of which 148 are

cultivated; pop. (1871), 40,311, including 1139 Muhammadans, 110 Jains, and 12 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £4927, or 1s. 1d. per cultivated acre. Crops—rice, sugar-cane, cotton, and white *jolá*.

Kan-ní. — Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 237 square miles. It extends northwards between the Arakan Hills and the Bassein river to the Thań-dwai; the north-eastern portion is flat, but the rest is hilly and covered with forest abounding in bamboos and iron-wood. An outcrop of sandstone appears to the north of Shwe-doung stream, and another a few miles inland to the west. Pop. (1876), 2620, chiefly Karengs; gross revenue, £770.

Kan-ní.—Revenue circle in Toung-gnú District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the left bank of the Tsittoung. To the east, the country is hilly, and covered with grass and tree forest; the chief timber is teak, *pyeng-gado*, *pyeng-ma*, and bamboo. Eng-won lake is within the limits of this circle. Pop. (1876), 4684; gross revenue, £575.

Kannúr (*Kánnanúr*).—Town in Malabar District, Madras.—*See* CANNANORE.

Kanoda.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 3¾ square miles. There are eight chiefs. The revenue in 1875 was estimated at £220; and tribute of £160 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Kan-oung. — Revenue circle on the bank of the Irawadi, in Kan-oung township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It includes the Kún-ta-lún and Kyet-tshú-daw circles farther to the north. Pop. (1876), 10,542; gross revenue, £2120. These figures are exclusive of Kan-oung town.

Kan-oung.—Township with 8 revenue circles, in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It extends westwards from the Irawadi to the Arakan Yomas. The tract near this river is low, but now protected from inundations by extensive embankments; towards the hills the country is mountainous, clothed with valuable forests, containing teak, *htouk-kyan*, *pyeng-gado*, and *eng*. In the low lands between the Irawadi and the hills are several lakes, the chief being the Htú, fed during the rains by the Mamya, a mountain stream. The principal town is KAN-OUNG. Pop. (1876), 36,336; gross revenue, £7180; the agricultural stock in 1876 comprised 8790 buffaloes, 6950 cows, bulls, and bullocks, 2264 pigs, 6277 carts, and 4018 ploughs. There was 1 sugar-mill; the number of oil-mills was 73; boats, 109. The total area under rice was 17,556 acres.

Kan-oung.—Town in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma, on the right bank of the Irawadi. Lat. 18° 11′ 50″ N., long.

95° 29′ E.; pop. (1877), 3315, chiefly merchants and petty traders; revenue, £161. Kan-oung was founded in 1754 A.D. by the king Alompra; the name is Talaing, and means 'whirlpool.' The place is so called because at the time the name was given there was a whirlpool opposite the spot on which the town was built. In the neighbourhood are the remains of an old fort. The town contains a police station, Public Works Department, inspection bungalow, and several public rest-houses. The extra-Assistant Commissioner resides and holds his court here.

Kanpur Iswaria.—One of the petty States of North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 4 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £500; and tribute is paid of £23 to the British Government, and £11 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Kan-rwa.—Revenue circle, in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 41 square miles; pop. (1876), 3657; gross revenue, £1893. The country consists of level and well-cultivated plains, especially those between the Pe-beng and Moung-dí rivers. East of the Moung-dí is a tract liable to inundation.

Kánsat.—Village in Maldah District, Bengal; situated on the Ganges. Noted for its fair held in February or March, which lasts for two days, and is attended by from 8000 to 10,000 Hindus, who come for the purpose of bathing in the Ganges. In 1868, cholera broke out severely at this gathering, and was thence widely disseminated throughout the District.

Kánsbáns (or *Káinsbáns*).—River in Balasor District, Orissa; so called from a jungle of *káins* grass and bamboos, amid which it rises in *kilá* Ambohatá. The stream runs in a south-easterly direction, at first almost parallel with the Nílgirí Hills, and receives from them a number of nameless drainage streams on its northern or left bank. At Bírpárá it bifurcates, the northern branch retaining its original name, and entering the sea in lat. 21° 12′ 25″ N., and long. 86° 52′ 10″ E. LAICHANPUR port is situated near the mouth of the river. The southern branch, the Gammái, on which is the port of CHURAMAN, falls into the Bay of Bengal, 6 miles south of the Kánsbáns.

Kánt.—Town in Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 49′ 10″ E., long. 79° 49′ 45″ E.; area, 131 acres; pop. (1872), 5006, consisting of 2935 Hindus and 2071 Muhammadans. Lies on the road from Sháhjahánpur to Jalálábád, 9 miles south of the former town. Small *bázár;* abundant water supply; centre of local grain trade.

Kántái.—Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated about 8 miles from Muzaffarpur town, on the road to Motihárí. Lat. 26° 13′ N., long. 85° 20′ 30″ E. Large indigo factory, and remains of saltpetre factory. Bi-weekly market.

Kantal.—Mountain Pass, Kashmír, Punjab.—*See* BUL TUL.

Kántha.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 18 miles east of of Unao town. Said to have been founded 900 years ago by a Lodha, who named the place after himself. Surrounded by numerous groves of mango and *mahuá* trees. In the days of native rule, there was a fortress here, the headquarters of a *tahsíldár*. Pop. (1869), 3734—namely, 3524 Hindus and 210 Musalmáns. Two Hindu temples, mosque, Government school; two small fairs—one in the month of Jaisthá, attended by about 5000, and another in Kuár, attended by 2000 people.

Kan-tha.—River in British Burma.—*See* TOUNG-GNYO.

Kanthalpára. — Village in the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal. Noted as a place of Sanskrit learning. A fair is held here during the *Ras-jatra* of Madanmohan. Established about twenty-five years ago by the late Mahárájá of Nadiya, Siris Chandrá Rái Bahádur.

Kánthi.—Subdivision and town, Midnapur District, Bengal.—*See* CONTAI.

Kantilo.—Town in Khanapára State, Orissa; situated on the south or right bank of the Mahánadi. Lat. 20° 21′ 46″ N., long. 85° 14′ 20″ E. The largest town in the Orissa Tributary States, and a considerable seat of trade, to which merchants from Cuttack bring salt, spices, etc., to exchange for cotton, wheat, oil-seeds, clarified butter, etc. from Sambalpur. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 5386; Muhammadans, 8; others, 140; total, 5534, viz. 2675 males and 2859 females, residing in 1113 houses.

Kantúr.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; situated 20 miles north-east of Bára Bánki town. Pop. (1869), 3450—namely, 2136 Hindus and 1314 Musalmáns. The chief inhabitants are Musalmáns, holding small rent-free grants. The houses are mainly of masonry, and the town is healthy and well situated on an eminence.

Kanu.—Village and railway station in Bardwán District, Bengal; 75 miles from Calcutta. An important junction on the East Indian Railway.

Kanum.—Town in Bashahr State, Punjab, the principal place in the Subdivision of Kunáwár. Lat. 31° 40′ N., long. 78° 30′ E.; situated in a mountain glen, near the valley of the Sutlej (Satlaj), about 9300 feet above sea level. Thornton states that the houses rise above one another in tiers, the roof of each tier forming the roadway for the next. Contains a celebrated Buddhist temple, with an extensive Thibetan library. Kanum ranks as the ecclesiastical capital of Kunáwár, its Grand Láma being the supreme pontiff of the Subdivision, but receiving his ratification from the Grand Láma of Ládákh. Goma de Coros, the Hungarian traveller, lived here during the course of his investigations into the Thibetan language and religion.

Kanyagiri.—Fort in Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 15° 23′ N., long. 79° 32′ E.; pop. (1871), 3081; number of houses, 619. Headquarters of the barren *táluk* of the same name, and only notable for its hill fort called the *Durgásuma.* This is a curious fortified hill, about 1500 feet above sea level, with a tableland of about 600 acres on its summit. The fort was built by the Gajapatis of Orissa in the 13th century, and captured by Krishna Ráya in the 16th century. It played a conspicuous part in local feuds till it was taken, and the buildings destroyed, by Haidar Alí. There is an ancient temple here.

Kanzam.—Pass in Kángra District, Punjab, over the Kanzam range, between Spiti and Láhul. Lat. 32° 23′ 30″ N., long. 77° 40′ 45″ E.; elevation, about 15,000 feet. An easy road, closed for some months in winter by snow; opens into the valley of the Chandra.

Káorápukur.—*Khál,* canal, or water-course, Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal, connecting Tolly's Canal, below the village of Tollyganj, with the Magrá *khál.* Lat. 22° 17′ to 22° 28′ 45″ N., long. 88° 23′ to 88° 23′ 30″ E. It is 23 miles in length, but not navigable all the year round throughout its entire course.

Kapadwanj. — Headquarters of the Kapadwanj Subdivision of Káira District, Bombay. A fortified town, situated in lat. 23° 1′ N., and long. 73° 7′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 13,982. Precious stones, such as agate and onyx, are found in large quantities in the bed of the Mohar, a rocky stream half a mile north of the town. Its manufactures are soap, glass, and leather butter-jars. The most important articles of trade are grain and opium from Central India, and tobacco from Guzerat. Besides supplying a considerable local demand, Kapadwanj goods are exported to the Pánch Maháls, Bálásinor territory, and Central India. The principal objects of interest in the town are a fine reservoir and a pillar in the Chálukya (1000-1300) style of architecture. Sub-judge's court and dispensary.

Kápargádi.—Range of hills in Singbhúm District, Bengal; rising abruptly from the plain to the Kápargádi peak, 1398 feet above sea level, from whence the range runs in a south-easterly direction until it culminates in the Tuiligár Hill, 2492 feet high, lat. 22° 42′ 30″ N., long. 86° 11′ 30″ E. Thence the ridge gradually widens out, and forms the northern limit of the Meghásani range in the Orissa Tributary State of Morbhanj. The rocks of the Kápargádi range are all of a schistose character, running into gneiss. On the north of the ridge are copper-bearing rocks, extending for a distance of 80 miles. These copper beds were formerly worked by European companies, but on too expensive a scale to yield a profit. The enterprise was abandoned in 1864, and the company's buildings and machinery were seized by the Rájá of Dhálbhúm for the mining rent of the ground. It has not since been resumed.

Kapileswarapur (*Konleshwaram*).—Town in Godávari District,

Madras. Lat. 16° 44′ N., long. 81° 57′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 5463; number of houses, 1355. Ferry across the Godávari.

Kapili.—River in the Province of Assam, rising in the Jaintiá Hills in lat. 25° 5′ N., and long. 92° 31′ E., and flowing northwards into Nowgong District. Falls into the Kalang, itself an offshoot of the Brahmaputra at Rahá. Lat. 26° 13′ N., long. 92° 35′ E. Its chief tributary is the JAMUNA, which joins it on its right bank from the Nágá Hills. The banks are rocky throughout. The Kapili is navigable in the plains by boats of 4 tons burthen during the greater part of the year.

Kapilmuni.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the bank of the Kabadak river, 5 or 6 miles below Tálá. Lat. 22° 41′ 30″ N., long. 89° 21′ E. It has a permanent *bázár* and a bi-weekly market, but is not a place of much trade. The village takes its name from a Hindu sage (*muni*) named Kapila, not the great Kapila who, according to Hindu mythology, destroyed the sons of King Ságar, but a celebrated devotee, who established his abode here in ancient times, and set up the idol Kapileswarí, which is still worshipped. A grand fair (*melá*) is annually held here in honour of the goddess in March, on the day of the *Baruní* bathing festival. According to local belief, the Kabadak at this place acquires for that day the sanctifying influences of Ganges water—a result due to the virtues of Kapilmuni. The tomb of a Muhammadan saint, Jafar Alí, has also become a place of pilgrimage for devout Musalmáns. The building is in charge of Muhammadan *fakírs*, who hold lands rent-free for its maintenance.

Kápini (*Kabbani*, *Kapila*).—Tributary of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, which rises in the Western Ghâts, and, after flowing in an easterly direction across the middle of Mysore District, Mysore State, falls into the Káveri near Narsipur. The confluence is a spot of great sanctity. The Kápini has two tributaries from the south, the Nugu and the Gundal. A perennial river, averaging from 150 to 200 yards in width, and during the dry season bringing down a volume of water not less than that of the Cauvery. Scarcely used at all for purposes of irrigation.

Kapurthála.—Native State under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab, lying between 31° 9′ and 31° 39′ 30″ N. lat., and between 75° 3′ 15″ and 75° 38′ 30″ E. long. Area, 800 square miles. Estimated population, 250,000.

The ancestors of the chief of Kapurthála at one time held possessions both in the cis- and trans-Sutlej, and also in the Bári Doáb. In the latter lies the village of Alhu, whence the family springs, and from which it takes the name of Alhuwália. The scattered possessions in the Barí Doáb were gained by the sword, and were the first acquisitions made by Sardár Jassa Sinh, the founder of the family.

Of the cis-Sutlej possessions, some were conquered and others were granted by Mahárájá Ranjít Sinh prior to September 1808. By a

treaty made in 1809, the Sardár of Kapurthála pledged himself to furnish supplies to British troops moving through or cantoned in his cis-Sutlej territory; and by declaration in 1809 he was bound to join the British standard with his followers during war.

In 1826, the Sardár, Fateh Sinh, fled to the cis-Sutlej States for the protection of the British Government against the aggressions of the Mahárájá Ranjít Sinh. This was accorded; but in the first Síkh war the Kapurthála troops fought against the British at Alíwál, and, in consequence of these hostilities and of the failure of the chief to furnish supplies from his cis-Sutlej estates to the British army, these estates were confiscated. When the Jalandhar (Jullundur) Doáb came under the dominion of the British Government in 1841, the trans-Sutlej estates were maintained in the independent possession of the Ahluwália chieftain, conditional on his paying a commutation in cash of the service engagements by which he had previously been bound to the Government of Ranjít Sinh.

The Barí Doáb estates have been released to the head of the house in perpetuity, the civil and police jurisdiction remaining in the hands of the British authorities.

In 1849, Sardár Nihal Sinh was created a Rájá. He died in September 1852, and was succeeded by his son, Randhír Sinh. During the Mutiny in 1857, the forces of Randhír Sinh, who never hesitated or wavered in his loyalty, strengthened our hold upon the Jalandhar Doáb; and afterwards, in 1858, the chief led a contingent to Oudh, which did good service in the field. He was well rewarded, and among other concessions obtained the grant in perpetuity of the estates of Baundi and Bithauli in Oudh. In these estates the Rájá exercises no sovereign powers, though in Oudh he is, to mark his superiority over the ordinary *tálukdárs*, to be addressed as Rájá-i-Rájágan. This title was made applicable to the Rájá in Oudh only, and not in the Punjab. His son and successor died at Aden on his way to England.

The present Rájá, Jagatjít Sinh, is a minor, who succeeded in September 1877. The chiefs of Kapurthála are Síkhs of the Ját tribe. The area of the Punjab estates is 800 square miles; that of the Oudh estates, 850 square miles. The population of the estates in Oudh and in the territories of the Punjab were estimated in 1875 at 220,000 in Oudh, and 250,000 in the Punjab. The revenue is about £170,000, but is subject to a charge of £13,100, payable to the British Government as commutation for military services, and £6000 per annum to Sardárs Bikráma Sinh and Suchet Sinh, brothers of Rájá Randhír Sinh. The military forces consist of 3 fort guns, 11 field guns, 198 cavalry, 1014 infantry, and 200 police. The principal products of the State are sugar-cane, cotton, wheat, maize, and tobacco. The Rájá has the right of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 11 guns.

Kapurthála.—Chief town of Kapurthála State, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 23′ N., and long. 75° 25′ E., 8 miles from the left bank of the river Beas (Biás).

Karáchi (*Kurrachee*).—A British District in the Province of Sind; lying between 23° 34′ and 26° 57′ N. lat., and between 66° 41′ 30″ and 68° 49′ E. long.; area (1878), 14,091 square miles; population (1878), 423,495 persons. Karáchi District is bounded on the north by Shikárpur; on the east by the Indus and Haidarábád (Hyderabad); on the south by the sea and the Kori river; and on the west by the sea and Baluchistán or the territories of the Khán of Khelát, the river Habb forming for a considerable distance the line of demarcation. The administrative headquarters are at the city of KARACHI (Kurrachee).

Physical Aspects. — Karáchi District, an immense tract of land stretching from the mouth of the Indus to the Baluchi boundary, differs considerably in appearance from the general level of the Province of Sind by its possession of a hilly western region, lying in the Subdivisions of Kohistán and Karáchi. Numerous lateral ranges of considerable height here push forward into the plain from the Kirthar Mountains, and diversify the usually monotonous aspect of the arid surface by their spurs and offshoots. From this lofty and barren tract, intersected by deep and wide valleys, the general aspect of the country, as it runs south-eastward in a vast sloping plain, becomes more and more level, until in the extreme south the Indus delta presents a broad expanse of low, flat, and unpicturesque alluvium, stretching away to the horizon in one unbroken sheet, only varied by the numerous creeks communicating with the ocean. Large forests of *bábul* and other trees fringe the river banks, and impart a somewhat fresher appearance to the otherwise dreary landscape. Elsewhere, however, the features of the Sind delta stand unrelieved in their naked monotony. The only other stream of any importance is the Habb, forming the western boundary between Sind and Baluchistán. A few minor torrents take their rise among the western hills, but consist of dry water-courses during the greater portion of the year, only inundated on a few rare occasions, when heavy rains fall on the higher ranges, in which they have their sources. The Manchhar Lake, in Sehwan Subdivision, forms the only considerable sheet of water in any part of Sind. The hot springs of Pír Mangho, situated about 6 or 7 miles north of Karáchi town, among some very barren and rocky hills, attract many visitors from their picturesque surroundings. They gush up from a clump of date-trees, which covers the extremity of a craggy limestone knoll, in a pretty valley enclosed by considerable heights. A swamp close by is famous for its immense number of crocodiles, which rank among the chief sights of Karáchi. Hundreds of these monsters bask lazily in the sun, by the side of a green, slimy,

stagnant pool, or move sluggishly about in search of food. A mosque crowns the summit of a neighbouring crag, with a neat white cupola and slender minarets. The fauna of the District include the leopard, hyæna, wolf, jackal, fox, bear, antelope, and wild sheep. Vultures, grey pigeon, partridge, and quail occur among the birds; and reptiles of various kinds abound, especially in Kohistán.

History.—The ancient town of SEHWAN contains the ruins of a fort of great antiquity. Local tradition ascribes its origin to Alexander the Great, who sailed down the Indus from the country of the Malli (Múltán), and despatched Nearchus, doubtless from some point in the present District, to explore the Persian Gulf. It is, however, more generally identified with the Sindomani existing in the time of Alexander. In later times it was known as Síwastán. The town already possessed considerable importance when Muhammad Kásim Sakifi, the first Musalmán invader of Sind, obtained its submission about 713 A.D., after his conquest of Nerankot, the modern Haidarábád. Close under the Makli Hills, again, stood Samui, the capital of the Samma dynasty of princes, originally a Hindu or Buddhist race, who maintained their independence of the Muhammadan power from 1351 to 1521. Converted to the faith of Islám about the close of the 14th century, they still continued to retain their practical autonomy, in spite of a nominal allegiance tendered to Firoz Tughlak of Delhi; and the town of TATTA, where they generally resided, became in after years the chief centre of population and commerce for the whole of Sind. In 1521, Sháh Beg, founder of the Arghún dynasty, completely defeated the last Samma prince, and established his own claim to the sovereignty of the lower Indus valley. After a continuance of only thirty-four years, however, the Arghún line became extinct in the person of Sháh Husain, son of the founder, who died childless in 1554. Mírzá Jáni Beg, the last local ruler of Tatta, was defeated by an army of the Mughal Emperor Akbar in 1591; and the District, together with the rest of Sind, became incorporated with the Múltán (Mooltan) *subah* in the imperial organization of the country. 'The country of Tatta,' however, was made over to Jáni Beg, who entered the Mughal service after his defeat, and compromised for his independence by accepting his former territories in *jágír*. Continued struggles for the governorship of Tatta led Jahángír to abolish the hereditary viceroyalty, and to appoint instead special lieutenants holding office during the imperial pleasure. The town of Karáchi itself appears to have attained little importance either under the native dynasties or the Mughal administration. Its rise into notice began with the period of the Tálpur Mírs, who succeeded the Kalhora princes in 1793 (*see* HAIDARABAD), and recognised the value of the harbour for commerce. The capture of the Manora

fort in 1839 put the British in possession of the town. Karáchi grew rapidly under the new administration, and became the principal port of North-western India. Karáchi District, as at first constituted, did not embrace so wide an area as at present; but in 1861, a portion of the Indus Delta, composing the present Sháhbandar Subdivision, was taken from Haidarábád, and incorporated with this Collectorate.

Population.—The total number of inhabitants in the District in 1872 amounted to 426,722 persons, scattered over an area of 16,109 square miles, and inhabiting an aggregate of 717 villages. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 26·42; villages per square mile, 0·04; persons per village, 595. Classified according to sex, there were — males, 242,516; females, 184,206; proportion of males, 56·8 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—87,498 boys; 69,692 girls; total children, 157,190, or 36·8 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, Karáchi is an essentially Muhammadan District, the Census showing a total of 348,773 Musalmáns, as against 73,304 Hindus. The Christian population includes the unusually large number of 3829 persons; while 816 are returned as 'others.' The ethnical division yields the following results:—Europeans, 2035; Eurasians, 323; Indo-Portuguese, 1039; other non-Asiatics, 208; Hindus, 73,304; native Muhammadans, 348,586; native Christians, 104; Parsís, 717; and 'others,' 406. The District contained, in 1872, 8 towns with a population exceeding 2000 — namely, KARACHI, 56,753; KOTRI, 7949; SEHWAN, 4296; BUBAK, 5703; DADU, 3357; TATTA, 7951; KETI-BANDAR, 2199; and MIRPUR BATORO, 2846.

Agriculture.—In the Karáchi Subdivision, cultivation exists only on a few isolated spots, and depends upon wells, springs, or natural rainfall. Here the chief crops are *joár*, *bájra*, barley, and sugar-cane, grown chiefly on the Malir Plain, distant from Karáchi some 12 miles, and easily accessible by rail. In Jerruck and Sháhbandar, where numerous canals carry the waters of the Indus through the alluvial flats, rice forms the staple crop; but wheat, sugar-cane, millets, cotton, and tobacco are also grown. In the barren hills of Kohistán, agriculture is practically unknown; and the nomad population devotes itself almost entirely to grazing cattle in the southern plains, where abundance of forage springs up spontaneously after every fall of rain. The harvest seasons recognised in the District are three in number — *kharíf*, sown in May or June, and reaped in October, November, or December; *rabí*, sown in November or December, and reaped in March or April; and *adháwa*, sown in January, and reaped in March.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The traffic of the District centres mainly on the town of KARACHI. The staple exports consist of cotton,

wool, and grain. Extensive salt deposits of the purest description occur in Sháhbandar Subdivision, on the Sirganda creek, a branch of the Indus, accessible for small craft of from 50 to 60 tons burden. According to Captain Burke, of the Bombay Engineers, who surveyed the beds in 1847, they are capable of supplying the whole world with all the salt it needed for a hundred years. Owing to the double excise duty, however, Sirganda salt was long unable to compete with inferior descriptions sent from other quarters; and the removal of the export duties in 1868 has not improved the trade to the extent anticipated. The Sind line of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway lies wholly within the District. It runs from Karáchi to Kotri, a distance of 106 miles, with stations at Malir, Dábeji, Júngsháhi (for Tatta), Jhimpir, Meting (for Jerruck), and Bulhári. The sea-fishery of the District is chiefly carried on by the Muhána tribe of Musalmáns, who reside for the most part at Karáchi. The principal fish caught are sharks, rays, and skates. The pearl oyster is found at several places on the coast, and the Mírs conducted pearl operations on their own account. Under British rule, the right has been let for a small sum; but the pearls are very inferior in size and quality, so that the industry has greatly declined of late years. Considerable fisheries also exist in the river Indus, chiefly for the fish known as *pala;* and Government derives a small revenue from this source. The local manufactures are confined to Karáchi town; Tatta is noted for *lungis*, and Bubak, near Sehwan, for carpets.

Administration.—The administration of this extensive District is conducted by a Collector-Magistrate, assisted by the several Deputy Collectors, as well as by the *Húzur* Deputy Collector, permanently stationed at headquarters. The District and Sessions Judge, with his principal court at Karáchi, holds periodical sessions at Kotri, Tatta, Batoro, Sehwan, and one other town. The canals of the District form a separate charge, under the superintendence of officials appointed by the Public Works Department. The total police force in the District in 1873 numbered 1349 officers and men, being 1 policeman to every 13 square miles and to every 316 of the population. The total imperial revenue in 1873-74 amounted to £139,079, of which sum £47,201 was contributed by the land tax. The small amount yielded by the land revenue is due to the large proportion of barren or desert area within the District. In the same year, the revenue from canals was returned at £52,222, and the cost of clearance at £11,703. Education has made some advance, but the progress is more striking in Karáchi town than in the villages of the interior. The total number of schools in 1873-74 amounted to 49, with a roll of 3167 pupils. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into the 3 divisions of SEHWAN, JERRUCK, and SHAHBANDAR, each of which see separately.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Karáchi city and the neighbouring country, which is in every direction open to the sea-breeze, possesses a great superiority to that which prevails throughout the remainder of Sind. The hill country of Kohistán is also cooler in summer and warmer in winter than is the case in the plains. In the north, on the other hand, near the barren Laki range of hills, the heat often becomes insupportable. The hot season commences about the middle or end of March, reaches its maximum in the month of July, and lasts till the end of August, when the temperature once more becomes tolerably cool. The rainfall at Karáchi is slight and fluctuating, the average hardly exceeding 5 inches per annum. Sometimes one or two years elapse with scarcely a shower. The fall in inches for four years ending 1874, was 0·12, 7·60, 2·50, and 8·29 respectively. In 1874, the maximum reached by the thermometer was 101° F., and the minimum 42°. Karáchi town is said to enjoy the healthiest climate in all Sind. Fevers prevail at the setting in of the cold season; and in the hot weather, external inflammations, ulcers, and skin diseases cause much trouble. Cholera appeared in an epidemic form in 1865, 1867, and 1869, in the last of which years terrible mortality occurred in the town of Kotri.

Karáchi (*Kurrachee*).—South-western *táluk* of Karáchi District, Sind, lying between 24° 44′ and 26° 4′ N. lat., and between 66° 41′ 45″ and 67° 59′ 15″ E. long. Area, 1253 square miles; pop. (1872), 62,384. Bounded north by Kohistán and the Habb river, west by the Habb and the sea, south by the sea, and east by Jerruck. Hilly towards the north and west, where several lofty and barren ranges occur. A small chain of hills runs for some miles parallel to the Habb river, terminating in the headland of Ras Muári or Cape Monze, a landmark for sailors making the port of Karáchí. The hills afford good pasturage after the rains for cattle sent from the lowlands. The *táluk* contains no canals, but is drained by several mountain torrents, the chief of which are the Malir and Layári. Salt marshes occur along the sea-coast, and abound with mangroves and other saline trees. Total area, 801,920 acres, of which 27,288 are cultivated, 870 cultivable, and 773,762 barren. Imperial revenue in 1873-74, £22,981; local revenue, £466. The only municipality is that of KARACHI.

Karáchi (*Kurrachee*).—Seaport and chief town of the Province of Sind, situated in lat. 24° 51′ 9″ N., and long. 67° 4′ 15″ E., at the extreme northern end of the Indus Delta, near the southern base of the Pabb Mountains in Baluchistán. Pop. (1872), 56,753.

Position, etc.—The bay of Karáchi is formed by the projecting headland of Manora Point, the extremity of a reef 10 miles in length, which supplies a natural barrier against the waters of the Arabian Sea. The opening of the bay between Manora and the opposite sanitarium of

Clifton has a width of about 3½ miles; but the mouth is blocked by a group of rocky islets, known as the 'Oyster Rocks,' as well as by the larger island of Kiamári, a little in the rear. The harbour stretches for 5 miles northward from Manora Head to the narrows of the Layári river, and about the same distance from the old town of Karáchi on the eastern shore to the extreme western point. Only a small portion of this extensive area, however, is capable of accommodating large vessels. Manora Head, the first object visible to a voyager approaching Karáchi from the sea, is crowned by a lighthouse, having a fixed light 120 feet above sea level, and visible for 17 miles around in clear weather. The point also affords room for a fort, said to have been erected in 1797, the port and pilot establishment, the buildings in connection with the harbour improvements, and a portion of the Indo-European telegraph department. Besides a library, billiard-room, and European school, Manora possesses an English church, intended for the crews of vessels frequenting the harbour. On the opposite side of the mouth, the island of Kiamári forms the landing-place for passengers and goods bound for Karáchi, and has three piers. A road running along the Napier Mole, 3 miles long, connects the island with the town and mainland. The Sind Railway also extends to Kiamári, but instead of following the mole it takes a more circuitous route to the south by the edge of a large lagoon, the waters of which are passed through the mole by a fine screw-pile bridge, 1200 feet in length, erected in 1865 at a cost of £47,500, so as to allow them to flow uninterruptedly into the harbour as a means of scouring the channel. At the northern extremity of this bridge, and running in a westerly direction, stands the native jetty, built of stone at an expense of £43,300. At the end of the Mole, on the mainland side, the custom-house runs right across the road, which pierces it by five arches, thus intercepting all traffic. Two principal thoroughfares lead from the custom-house to the Karáchi cantonments, known respectively as the Bandar and the M'Leod roads. The oldest portion of the town lies along the former route, close to the harbour, containing the most thickly populated quarter in Karáchi. The municipality, however, has lately widened the streets and effected other improvements, which must conduce to the health of the inhabitants, chiefly Hindu and Muhammadan merchants. The Layári, a river only in name, as it contains water only some three or four times a year, separates this quarter from the Layári suburb. On the M'Leod Road are situated the court-house, the new Bank of Bombay, the Agra Bank, the Chamber of Commerce, Messrs. Mackenzie & Cosser's ironworks, and three important cotton-press houses: the M'Leod Road presses, owned by the Sind Press Company, capable of turning out daily 350 pressed bales of cotton; the Tyabji presses, erected in 1865 at a cost of £22,000, and turning out 250 bales; and

the Albert presses, leased to the Sind Press Company, and turning out 390 bales. This quarter also contains the charitable dispensary, Sind Railway station, several schools, a new Hindu temple, and most of the offices belonging to European merchants. The Afghán *sarái*, intended for the use of Káfilas, or caravans from Kandahár, rebuilt by the municipality in 1873 at a cost of £1954, covers an area of about 3 acres. Nearer to the cantonments, a number of bungalows stand on the intervening space; while the civil lines skirt the cantonment itself to the eastward. The military quarter consists of three portions—the depôt lines, the artillery lines, and the European infantry lines. The Government garden, distant about half a mile from cantonments, covers an area of 40 acres, neatly laid out with trees and shrubs.

Chief Buildings.—The architecture of Karáchi is essentially modern and Anglo-Indian. The principal church is the Anglican one of the Holy Trinity, situated in the cantonments. It stands in a large open space, 15 acres in extent, and consists of a heavy, ungainly Italian nave, with a disproportionately tall and ugly tower. The Roman Catholic Church of St. Patrick, also situated in the cantonments, cannot be said to represent any particular style of architecture. St. Patrick's school is a fine stone building, capable of accommodating 40 boarders and 200 day-scholars. The European and Indo-European school, founded in 1854, under the auspices of Sir Bartle Frere, then Commissioner of Sind, occupies a handsome stone structure in the depôt lines. The other chief modern institutions include the Presbyterian Church of St. Andrew, Christ's Church and mission schools, the Napier Barracks, Gisri Sanitarium, and post office. The Frere Hall, a municipal building named in honour of the late Commissioner, stands on a slight elevation near Trinity Church. It was opened in a somewhat unfinished state in October 1865, up to which date as much as £17,391 had been expended upon its erection. This hall, which is a comparatively good specimen of slightly adapted Venetian Gothic, contains the Karáchi General Library and Museum, with a revenue in 1873-74 of £590. Government House, the residence of the Commissioner of Sind, is situated in the civil quarter, and consists of a central building with two wings, approached by five separate carriage drives. Though commodious and comfortable in its interior arrangements, the exterior can lay no claim to architectural beauty.

History. — Karáchi town may be regarded as almost a creation of British rule, its extensive commerce, splendid harbour works, and numerous flourishing institutions having all sprung up since the introduction of our settled administration. Before 1725, no town whatever appears to have existed on the site. Under Jám Daria Khán Jokia, some little trade began to centre upon the convenient harbour.

Cannon brought from Muscat fortified the little fort, and the name of Karáchi was bestowed upon the rising village. The hopeless blocking up of Sháhbandar harbour shortly afterwards drove much of its former trade and population to Karáchi. Under the Kalhora princes, the Khán of Khelát obtained a grant of the town, which he garrisoned from his own territory. The Tálpur chiefs gained possession by force of arms in 1795, and built a fort at Manora, at the mouth of the harbour. They also made considerable efforts to increase the trade of Karáchi, so that in 1838 the town and suburbs had a population of 14,000, half of whom were Hindus. The houses were all flat-roofed, and built of mud, very few of them having more than one storey. The Government under the Mírs was vested in a civil and military official, the Nawáb, who ruled despotically over the town and neighbourhood.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned the total number of inhabitants, including the cantonment, at 56,753. The military force, with camp followers, amounted to 3227 men, comprising a battery of Royal Artillery, 1 European and 1 Native infantry regiment, and the men and families of the ordnance and barrack departments. The Muhammadans numbered 29,156, and the Hindus, 23,404; Christians, 3397; and 'others,' 796. The proportion of European inhabitants in Karáchi is unusually large.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Even before the period of British rule, the commerce of Karáchi had attained to some importance, owing to the value of the river Indus as a channel of communication. Nevertheless, the sparse population of the country, combined with the short-sighted and selfish policy of its rulers, prevented it from reaching its proper development. Under the Tálpur Mírs, all imports were subjected to a 4 per cent. duty, and all exports to one of 2½ per cent. In 1809, the customs revenue amounted to £9900; by 1838, it had risen to £15,000. In the latter year, the whole trade of the town was valued at £374,700. The following list gives the value of the principal articles of trade in 1837, under the Mírs, six years before British annexation:—Imports—English silk, broadcloth, chintz, etc., £60,000; Bengal and China raw silk, £24,800; slaves, £12,000; dates, £10,000; sugar, £8500; ivory, £6400; copper, £5400; spices, £5850; and cotton, £3750: Exports—opium (from Khairpur), £160,000; *ghí*, £17,000; indigo, £12,000; wheat, £6750; madder, £4500; wool, £3500; raisins, £3200; and salt fish, £3000. Slaves came chiefly from Muscat, and consisted of negroes or Abyssinians. Opium to the extent of 500 camel-loads came from Márwár, and was exported to the Portuguese town of Damán. Almost all the goods imported into Sind were then consumed within the Province, only £15,000 worth being sent across the frontier. The total gross

revenue drawn from the town and port of Karáchi by the Mírs in 1837 amounted to £17,389. In 1843-44, the first year of British rule, the trade of Karáchi, including Keti-bandar and Sirganda, had a total value of £122,160, comprising exports, £1010, and imports, £121,150. The second year of British rule saw a rise to £227,000, the third to £353,400, and the fifth to £442,602. By 1852-53, the total value had risen to £812,027, comprising imports, £535,690, and exports, £276,310. Apart from the increase in the trade as a whole, the rapid development of the exports deserves attention. In 1855-56, the figures stood as follows:—Imports, £629,813; exports, £604,440; total, £1,234,253. In 1857-58, the exports nearly overtook the imports, the two standing respectively at £1,081,101 and £1,078,128; total, £2,159,229. The American civil war gave an enormous impetus to the trade of Karáchi, by the high demand for Indian cotton which it created in the European markets; and in 1862-63, the total value of the commerce amounted to no less than £5,316,424, viz. imports, £2,188,943, and exports, £3,127,481, being the first year in which the balance of trade stood in favour of Karáchi. In the next year, the returns rose to the highest figure ever yet attained, the total value amounting to £6,567,685, or imports, £2,520,897, and exports, £4,046,787. The restoration of peace in America, however, gradually brought about a lower rate in the home markets, and the trade of Karáchi returned to what may be now considered its normal level. The total value sank from £5,058,802 in 1864-65, to £4,053,610 in 1867-68, and £3,507,684 in 1873-74. The last-named figures fairly represent the average commerce of the town and port under ordinary circumstances. The following were the principal articles of import in 1873-74, with their value in pounds sterling:—Apparel, £26,831; cocoa-nuts, £23,215; cotton piece-goods, £713,775; cotton twist and thread, £49,069; fruits and vegetables, £43,653; coal and coke, £13,170; grain and pulses, £16,407; ivory, £13,087; jute (manufactured), £49,866; malt liquors, £20,818; wines and liqueurs, £21,584; spirits, £47,396; metals (chiefly manufactured), £66,836; provisions, £18,656; railway materials, £17,956; silk, £16,001; spices, £33,388; sugar, molasses, etc., £111,964; timber, £28,492; and specie, £12,722; total imports, including miscellaneous articles, £1,481,765. The following list shows the countries from which these imports were received:—United Kingdom, £382,833; Bombay, £1,112,668; Persian Gulf, £45,564; France, £3449; Makrán, £7989; Calcutta, £48,478; British Burma, £17,080; Cutch and Káthiáwár, £6587; Malabar, £8828; and Guzerat, £5137. From the United Kingdom, Karáchi imports cotton manufactures, railway materials, liquors, coal and coke, machinery, metals, provisions, apparel, drugs, and medicines; from

Bombay, cotton piece-goods and twist, treasure, metals, silk, sugar, tea, jute, spices, dyes, woollen manufactures, cocoa-nuts, manufactured silk, liquors, fruit, and vegetables; from the Persian Gulf, dried fruits, treasure, wool, grain, and horses; from the coast of Makrán, wool, provisions, grain, and pulses; and from Calcutta, jute, sugar, grain, and pulses. The following list shows the value of the various exports in 1873-74:—Animals (living), £37,263; raw cotton, £381,720; cotton goods, £14,283; drugs, £16,286; dyes, £98,531; fruits and vegetables, £24,093; grain and pulses, £451,538; hides and skins, £51,612; oil, £11,617; provisions, £39,301; oil-seeds, £203,778; wood, £11,501; wool, £609,518; and specie, £22,727. Total value of exports, including articles not separately enumerated, £2,025,919. The following list shows the distribution among the several countries:—United Kingdom, £859,805; Bombay, £697,888; France, £36,688; Mauritius, £26,939; Persian Gulf, £49,896; Cutch, £37,894; Makrán, £13,767; Malabar, £24,145; Guzerat, £17,211; Calcutta, £318; and China, £149,762. To the United Kingdom, Karáchi exports cotton, wool, indigo, seeds, hides, skins, tea, and oils; to France, cotton, gingelli, and rape-seed; to Bombay, Cutch, and Guzerat, cotton, grain, *ghí*, indigo, oils, seeds, rice, raw silk, shawls, wool, and horses; to Mauritius, grain, pulses, and oils; to Makrán, grain, indigo, oils, and piece-goods; to the Persian Gulf, indigo, oils, hides, skins, and piece-goods; to Madras Presidency (Malabar), horses; and to China, raw cotton. The inland trade of Karáchi includes, besides the goods from the Upper Provinces by rail from Kotri, a large quantity of wool, dried fruits, and horses from Kandahár and Khelát; while camels, bullocks, and donkeys bring in firewood, grass, *ghí*, date-leaves, hides, and seeds from Las Belá and Kohistán. The total sea-customs revenue of Karáchi in 1873-74 amounted to £33,786,—viz. import duty, £23,389; export duty, £10,022; miscellaneous, £375.

Shipping, etc.—The harbour of Karáchi, during the period of the Tálpur Mírs, and for the first few years after British annexation, was only capable of accommodating small native craft. Steamers and large ships anchored outside Manora Point, whence men and stores were conveyed in boats up the river, as far as the tide permitted, and then transferred into canoes, which carried them through a sea of liquid mud to a spot near the site of the existing custom-house. In process of time, however, it became apparent that the bar did not interpose so great an obstacle as was originally supposed, and that square-rigged vessels of a certain draught could cross it with safety. Up to 1851, only one English sailing ship had entered the harbour. In 1852, however, the *Duke of Argyle*, a vessel of 800 tons, arrived at Karáchi from England direct with troops, coal, and iron. In 1853, under the Chief Commissioner-

ship of Sir Bartle Frere, the Napier Mole road or causeway, connecting Karáchi with the island of Kiamári, was completed, and thus offered additional inducements to ships for visiting the harbour. In 1856, a scheme for improving the harbour by deepening the water on the bar was submitted for the opinion of Mr. James Walker, an eminent London engineer, who estimated the cost of works to provide an ample width of passage with a depth of 25 feet at neap tides, at £287,000. After much debate and intermissions, the principal part of the works—the Manora breakwater, 1503 feet in length—was commenced in March 1869, and completed in February 1873. It affords complete shelter to the western channel over the bar during the south-west monsoon, and combined with other works, has already led to the deepening at the entrance to 20 feet at low-water spring tides. The rise and fall is about 8 feet. The other portions of these extensive works include the Kiamári groyne or stone bank, the east pier, the screw-pile bridge on the Napier Mole, the native jetty, and the Chini creek stoppage. The total expenditure on the harbour improvements, up to December 1873, amounted to £449,798. In 1847-48, the number of vessels which entered the harbour was 891, all native craft, with a total burden of 30,509 tons. In 1873-74, the list includes 30 square-rigged sailing vessels, 152 steamers, and 731 native craft, making a total of 913 ships, with a tonnage of 161,284 tons, or more than five times that of 1847.

Municipality, etc. — The Karáchi Municipal Commission was established in September 1852. Its revenue in 1874 amounted to £22,596, and its expenditure to £20,142. The town police force numbered 298 men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 182 of the population. The jail, completed in 1868, is capable of accommodating nearly 800 prisoners. Education is carried on by the Government high school, with 77 pupils in 1875; the Anglo-vernacular school, with 130 pupils; 4 Government vernacular schools; and several female and other minor establishments. Five newspapers are published at Karáchi, two English (the Government *Sind Official Gazette*, with a vernacular translation, and the *Sindian*) and three native (in Sindí, Gujrathí, and Persian respectively). The charitable dispensary afforded relief in 1874 to 10,657 persons, of whom 73 were in-door patients. The civil hospital admitted in the same year 9397 out-door and 897 in-door patients. A sick hospital was established in 1869, in connection with the proper regulation of the cantonments.

Medical Aspects, Water Supply, etc. — The climate of Karáchi, owing to the prevalence of sea-breezes during eight months of the year, has a better reputation for healthiness than any other in Sind. The low situation of the town, and the near neighbourhood of marsh land, render the atmosphere both moist and warm; but the heat during

the hottest months cannot compare with that experienced in the interior. The mean annual temperature, calculated from data extending over nineteen years, may be stated at 77° F. The hottest weather occurs in April, May, and June, though September and October are also often close and sultry. The difficulty of water supply long formed one of the chief drawbacks to Karáchi, most of the wells being too brackish for drinking purposes. At present, the supply is mainly derived from wells tapping a subterranean bed of the Layárí. The inhabitants of Kiamári, and the shipping in the harbour, obtain water from carts, which bring it up from camp. For the purposes of ice manufacture, water is imported by rail from Kotri. A scheme is now (1875) under consideration for constructing an underground aqueduct, 18 miles in length, from the Malir river. The estimated cost of this undertaking, including pipes for distributing the water to the town, Kiamári, and the cantonments, amounts to 14 *lákhs* of rupees (say £140,000). The prevalent diseases of Karáchi include intermittent fevers, chronic rheumatism, and bowel complaints, arising apparently from imperfect drainage, variable climate, and unwholesome drinking water. Cholera occurred in an epidemic form in 1865, 1867, and 1869, and small-pox in 1866, 1868, and 1870.

Karád.—Chief town and municipality of the Karád Subdivision, Satára District, Bombay; situated 31 miles south-south-east of Satára, in lat. 17° 17′ N., and long. 74° 13′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 11,410. Annual income, £433. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Kárágolá.—Village in Purniah District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 23′ 30″ N., long. 87° 30′ 51″ E. Kárágolá is on the route from Calcutta to Dárjíling, and is the terminus to which a steamer runs from Sáhibganj in connection with the East Indian Railway. Of late years, however, a large sandbank has formed in front of the village, on account of which the steamer, except during the rainy season, is obliged to anchor at a point 2 miles farther down the river. Kárágolá contains a police outpost station, *dák* bungalow or staging inn, and a post office, which is also the chief agency for the Government post-carriage service to Dárjíling. Two or three small native firms of carriage owners are also established here. The village derives its chief importance as being the site of one of the largest fairs in the Lower Provinces. It was formerly held at Pirpainti in Bhágalpur District, on the opposite bank of the Ganges; but early in the century it was removed to Purniah, and, after various shiftings, was held at Kárágolá in 1851, and has been regularly held there since, except in 1874, the year of the Behar scarcity. The fair is held on a large sandy plain, on ground belonging to the Mahárájá of Darbhanga. During the continuance of the fair, which lasts for ten days, the plain is covered with streets of small shops constructed of bamboos and matting, in

which nearly every article required for native domestic use is to be found. There is a very large sale for cloth of all kinds, from thick English woollens, long cloth of European and native make, down to fine Dacca muslins. A considerable trade is also carried on in iron ploughshares of Monghyr make and plain English cutlery. Brass and bell-metal cooking utensils are brought in great numbers from Calcutta and Rájsháhí. The south of Purniah supplies blankets and rugs from Sáifganj and Kadbá, and reed-mats from Balrámpur. Ornamental cabinet ware, as well as common furniture, also stone handmills for grinding corn, etc., come from Monghyr. Calcutta and some of the large up-country towns send dressed leather, boots, looking-glasses, Rámpur shawls, silks, and *kinkhábs*. Spices from Murshidábád and Nadiyá, and lac ornaments and toys from Monghyr and Bírbhúm, are largely sold. A few dealers in trinkets and pedlars' ware also attend. Since the prohibition of the sale of firearms and ammunition, the attendance of Nepálís has somewhat diminished. They still visit the fair, however, bringing knives, *kukrís*, hill canes, *yák* tails, drugs, a little coarse lac, and hill ponies. Food grain is only sold in such quantities as to meet the immediate requirements of the visitors. The business done is generally purely retail; but in some years, when country produce is in much request, and large stocks are on hand, a wholesale trade is developed during the last two or three days of the fair. In 1876, it was estimated that 40,000 persons attended. Epidemics frequently break out at the gathering; and since 1870, cholera has twice spread from Kárágolá over the District, with fatal results.

Karái.—River of Northern Behar, which forms a connecting link between the Bághmatí and Tiljugá river system. Rising in Nepál, it flows southwards through Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga Districts. Of late years, the Bághmatí has established a connection with it at Hyá *ghát*, about 8 miles south of Darbhanga. Prior to this, the Karái was a small and unimportant stream, but now the main current of the Bághmatí flows down it, and from Hyá *ghát* to its junction with the Tiljugá at Tilkeswar or the border of Monghyr District (lat. 25° 44′ N., long. 86° 28′ E.) it is navigable during the rainy months by boats of about 75 tons burden.

Karáibári.—Village at the foot of the Gáro Hills, Assam; formerly included within Goálpára District. Lat. 25° 18′ N., long. 89° 53′ E. It is the residence of a *zamíndár*, who claims rights over an extensive tract of forest in the Gáro Hills. This forest is now managed by Government, which collects the revenue derived therefrom by its own agent, and hands over the proceeds to the *zamíndár*, retaining 25 per cent. for costs of collection. The weekly market held here is largely frequented by Gáros, who bring down the produce of their hills to exchange for cotton goods, salt, and hardware.

Káraichúti.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras; situated in lat. 8° 24′ 45″ N., and long. 78° 7′ 20″ E. Pop. (1871), 5104.

Karaimadai.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 11° 10′ 45″ N., long. 76° 59′ E.; pop. (1871), 2677; number of houses, 385. Station on the Nílgiri branch line. There is a Vishnuvite pagoda here which is held in great local esteem.

Karajgáon.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berar. Lat. 21° 19′ 30″ N., long. 77° 39′ E.; about 8 miles north-east of Ellichpur, formerly the headquarters of the *tálukdár*. Pop. (1867), 7169. Garden cultivation very extensive. Weekly market; wheat, rice, gram, and *mahuá* are brought in from the hills; good bullocks are also procurable. Sales said to amount to £2500 a week. Government school. A former *tálukdár*, Vithal Bhágdeo, in 1806 built a fortified residence of fine sandstone, but it is now in a ruinous condition.

Kárakal (‘*Black-stone*’).—Town in South Kanara District, Madras; with considerable rice trade. Situated in lat. 13° 12′ 40″ N., and long. 75° 1′ 50″ E.; on one of the main lines leading from Mysore to Mangalore (*viâ* Agúmbay *ghát*). Pop. (1871), 3269; number of houses, 607. Kárakal was formerly a Jain town of some size and importance; and the antiquarian remains are very interesting. Chief among them is a colossal monolithic figure of Buddha or Gautama, locally known as Gumpta, after Gumta Ráya, once ruler of this country. The figure is placed on a huge black rock, and is within a fraction of 50 feet high. On the same rock or hill is a Jain pagoda or Basti, containing some images of the later Buddhist type. A high monolithic *Dwája Stamba* (a kind of obelisk), the ruins of the Wadiyá's palace, a Hindu temple containing a figure of Anantashin, and a Jain impaling stone, are the other curiosities of this village.

Karakoram Pass.—The name applied to the point where the principal route between India and Eastern Turkistán traverses the water-parting between the river basins of those two regions. Strictly, in the sense in which pass is used as equivalent to *col*, or as denoting a marked depression in an otherwise inaccessible ridge, the Karakoram Pass is a misnomer. Dr. T. Thomson, of the Bengal Army, the first European who is known to have set foot on it, and who reached it on the 19th August 1848, describes it as ‘a rounded ridge connecting two hills, which rise somewhat abruptly to the height of perhaps 1000 feet above the summit of the pass.’ Dr. Scully speaks of it in very similar language: ‘Northwards (of the Depsang plain) we saw a few irregular, flat-topped hillocks. . . . We ascended a few hundred yards to a small commissure of loose detritus connecting two low hills, and found ourselves on the Karakoram Pass. The descent on the north side was even less than the ascent had been, and altogether the Karakoram Pass reminded one of a short embankment 300 feet or so above the

level of the surrounding country.' Dr. Thomson remarks, that on the crest of the pass the rock was limestone, showing obscure traces of fossils; the shingle composed of a brittle black slate lay scattered over the ridge. Vegetation is entirely wanting. The name Karakoram has been extended by some geographers to a fancied range occupying the exact line of water-parting between those streams which discharge into the Tarim basin and those which join the Indus, while others have applied the name to the closely contiguous range usually called Muztagh. The late Mr. R. B. Shaw, the well-known geographer, has, however, conclusively shown the fallacy of the former view; while as regards the second contention, the appropriateness of the name Muztagh (ice-mountain), and the fact that the Karakoram Pass lies some distance northward of this undoubted range, have since induced most geographers to restrict the name Karakoram to the above pass. The enormous physical difficulties of the Karakoram route, combined with the scarcity of supplies along it (apart from political considerations), must always prove an almost insuperable bar to any extensive exchange of intercourse between India and Eastern Turkistán in this direction. Its height above mean sea level is 18,550 feet. Lat. 35° 33′ N.

Karamnása.—The ancient accursed stream of Hindu mythology; rising on the eastern ridge of the Káimur Hills, Sháhábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 34′ 30″ N., long. 83° 41′ 30″ E. It flows in a north-westerly direction, and near Daríhára it forms the boundary line between Bengal and the North-Western Provinces, separating Sháhábád from Mírzápur District; it then flows through Mírzápur for about 15 miles northwards; after which it runs north-eastwards, again marking the boundary between Sháhábád and the North-Western Provinces, until it falls into the right bank of the Ganges near Chausá, in lat. 25° 31′ N., long. 83° 55′ E., after a total course of about 146 miles. Its tributaries are the Durgauti and Dharmauti rivers, small streams which fall into its right bank. In the hills, the bed of the Karamnása is rocky, and its banks abrupt; but as it debouches upon the plains, it sinks deeply into a rich clay, very retentive of moisture. The stream is here about 150 yards wide. By the end of February the river generally runs dry, but during the rains boats of about 2 tons burden can proceed as far up as its confluence with the Durgauti. Near Chausá, the East Indian Railway crosses it on a stone bridge. The river is held in the utmost abhorrence by Hindus, and no person of any caste will drink or even touch its waters. The reason of its impurity is said to be that a Bráhman having been murdered by Rájá Trisanku, of the Solar line, a saint purified him of his sin by collecting water from all the streams in the world, and washing him in their waters, which were collected in the spring from which the Karamnása now issues. This spot is near the village of Sárodag, and the

river soon becomes a rapid streamlet of beautifully clear water with deep holes, and abounding in fish. At Chhanpathar, in its course through Mírzápur District, the river forms a waterfall 100 feet high, which, after heavy rains, affords a magnificent sight.

Karanbás.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the right bank of the Ganges, 12 miles south-east of Anupshahr, and 30 miles south-east of Bulandshahr. Pop. (1872), 2057, almost all Hindus. The fair held here on the occasion of the *Dasahara* festival is attended by 100,000 pilgrims from the west. A very old temple, sacred to the goddess of small-pox, is visited every Monday by numbers of women.

Karanguli (*Carunguli*).—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras. Lat. 12° 32′ N., long. 79° 56′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 2978; number of houses, 410. Though now unimportant, the fort was occupied as a strategic point during the Anglo-French wars of the Karnatic, being regarded as an outpost of Chengalpat, from which it is 15 miles distant south-west. These two places, with Wandiwash and Utremalúr, formed a sort of quadrilateral on the line of attack between the seats of the two Governments of Madras and Pondicherri. As early as 1755, it was a point of dispute. In 1757, it was evacuated by the English in the face of advancing French troops. The following year the English attempted to recover it by surprise, but were repulsed with loss; a failure which was repeated in 1759. But a few months later, Colonel Coote, after a few days' bombardment, captured the fort. This was the first decisive action in the successful campaign of 1759-60, which led to the victory of Wandiwash.

Karanja.—Port in Tanna District, Bombay; situated in lat. 18° 51′ N., and long. 73° E., 5 miles south-east of Bombay city. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74, returned at £79,176, viz. imports, £4405, and exports, £74,771.

Karanja.—Town in Wardha District, Central Provinces; situated on high land surrounded by hills, 41 miles north-west of Wardha. Estimated pop. (1870), 3000, consisting principally of cultivators, traders, and weavers. Market and school. A good road connects the town with the high road from Nágpur to Amráoti.

Karanja.—Town in Amráoti District, Berar. Lat. 20° 29′ N., long. 77° 32′ E.; pop. (1867), 11,750. A place of some commercial importance. It is said to take its name from an old Hindu saint, Kárinj Rishi, who, being afflicted with a grievous disease, invoked the aid of the goddess Amba, who created for him a tank (still existing opposite the temple of the goddess), in which he bathed and became clean. The wall round the town, built many years ago, is now dilapidated. There is a travellers' bungalow, which was built when the postal road from Nágpur ran through the town. Several ancient temples, the carved woodwork of which is greatly admired.

Karanpurá.—Coal-field in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; lies between 23° 37′ and 23° 57′ N. lat., and between 84° 51′ and 85° 30′ E. long. Area, 472 square miles; greatest length, 42 miles; breadth, 19 miles. It is divided into two tracts by the Dámodar river, and in point of size is inferior only to the Ráníganj field of all the coal-fields of the Dámodar valley, although not so important economically as either the Karharbarí, Bokaro, or Jhariá fields. The seams decrease in number in going from east to west. The coal series represented in the field are the Tálcher, Dámodar, and Pánchet. The probable amount of available fuel, after making deductions for 'partings,' and calculating on a coal-bearing area of 250 square miles in the total of 472 included in the field, has been estimated at 8¾ billions of tons in the northern, and 75 million tons in the southern field. Regarding the quality, the following assay may be taken as giving a fair measure of the better class of coals:—Carbon, 64·5; volatile matter, 27·0; ash, 8·5. The amount of ash compares favourably with the ordinary Dámodar coals. Iron ores of good quality occur in abundance in the field, and the manufacture of iron forms one of the chief industrial features of Hazáribágh District, where many villages are inhabited solely by iron-smelters. Limestone is found along the edge of the field in many places, but not in sufficient quantity to be available as a flux for large ironworks for a lengthened period.

Karatoyá.—River of Northern Bengal, rising in the Baikunthpur jungle in the extreme north-west of Jalpáigurí District, whence it follows a very winding southerly course into and through Rangpur, until it joins its waters with the Halháliá in the south of Bogra District, and the united stream becomes the PHULJHUR. The topography of this river is attended with numerous difficulties. The vagaries of the TISTA in the last century have left behind a maze of old water-courses and stagnant marshes, so as to render it nearly impossible to trace the course of former rivers. Changes of name are numerous, and in many places an old channel of the Tistá is known indifferently as the Burí Tistá and as the Karto or Karatoyá. That stream ultimately joins the Atrái; but the Karatoyá proper, as above stated, becomes the Phuljhur. It was formerly a first-class river, but is now of minor importance for navigation.

Karauli (*Kerowlee*).—Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Rájputána Agency and the Government of India; lies between 26° 3′ and 26° 49′ N. lat., and between 76° 35′ and 77° 26″ E. long. Area, about 1260 miles; estimated population (1874), 140,000 persons. The river Chambal forms the south-eastern boundary of the State, dividing it from Gwalior. On the south and west it is bounded by Jáipur (Jeypore), and on the north and north-west by the States of Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) and Dholpur respectively.

Physical Aspects.—Hills and broken ground characterise almost the whole territory, which lies within a tract locally termed the 'Dang,' being the name given to the rugged region which lies above the narrow valley of the Chambal. The principal hills in the State are on the northern border, where several ranges run along or parallel to the frontier line, forming formidable barriers; but there are no lofty peaks, the highest being less than 1400 feet above sea level. There is little beauty in these hills, but the military advantages they present caused the selection of one of their eminences as the seat of Jádu rule in early times. Along the valley of the Chambal an irregular and lofty wall of rock separates the lands on the river bank from the uplands, of which the southern part of the State consists. From the summits of the passes fine views are often obtainable, the rocks standing out in striking contrast to the comparatively rich and undulating plain below, through which winds the glittering river. For some miles the country north of these passes is high, and too rocky to be deeply cut by ravines or to be pierced for water, and the few inhabitants depend upon tanks and dams; but farther north the country falls, the alluvial deposit is deeper, level ground becomes more frequent, and hills stand out more markedly, while in the neighbourhood of the city of Karauli (Kerowlee) the low ground is cut into a labyrinth of ravines. The river Chambal, sometimes deep and slow, sometimes too rocky and rapid to admit of the safe passage of a boat, receives during the rains numerous contributions to its volume, but no considerable perennial stream flows into it within the boundaries of Karauli. The Pánchna is the only river which rises in the State, and this does not flow into the Chambal. It is so called from its being formed of five streams, which unite 2 miles north of the city. All these five rivulets rise in Karauli territory, and all but one contain water in dry weather, though often only a few inches in depth. The Pánchna winds away to the north and ultimately joins the Bánganga. The Kálísur or Dangir and the Jirota Nadi drain the country to the south-west of the city. Both are insignificant streams, dry or nearly so most of the year, and flow into the Morel on the Jáipur border. The sub-surface water throughout the territory is for the most part good. That of the tanks in the high rocky country, above the passes leading into the valley of the Chambal, becomes unwholesome in the hot weather; and the inhabitants often move down with their cattle to the banks of the Chambal, the waters of which, however, have a bad reputation for drinking purposes.

Geology.—The rocks in this territory belong to two series—viz. the Vindhyáns and the Quartzites. The latter are only exposed in a narrow ridge extending in a south-westerly direction from Baoli, situate about 8 miles south-west of the city of Karauli, to the Banás river. The rocks of the Vindhyán series cover a large area on both sides of

this ridge of quartzites. On the south-east side they form the high land extending in that direction as far as the Chambal. The grand scarp on the left bank of the Chambal, rising in places to upwards of a thousand feet above the river, is formed entirely of the highest group of this series,—the Bhánrers, which cover a larger area than all the other groups put together. In fact, they cover the whole of Karauli, with the exception of that portion north-west of the quartzite ridge. Over the greater part of this area, the Bhánrers are nearly horizontal, but along a portion of their north-western boundary they are a good deal contorted. The Bhánrer sandstones are generally very fine in texture, but in some places there are coarse, almost conglomeratic beds. In colour, they are purple, white, yellow, and red, with patches or spots of white. The last is the common variety. In the grand scarp on the left bank of the Chambal, a good section of the Bhánrers is exposed. The limestone is light blue, brownish, or yellow in colour; in places largely crystalline, and often containing strings and veins of calcite; the lower beds sometimes include bands and nodules of chert. Above the limestone to the top of the scarp there are between 600 and 700 feet of the Sirbu shales, consisting of several alternations of shales and sandstones. The Vindhyáns on the north-west side of the quartzite ridge belong to the two lowest groups of the upper Vindhyás, namely, the Káimur and the Rewah. The mineral resources of the Vindhyán rocks are chiefly confined to building stone of excellent quality, and limestone. The palace of Fatehpur Sikri, and portions of the Táj at Agra, are built of the upper Bhánrer sandstone, quarried a short distance from Karauli. The Bhánrer limestone is in many places largely burned for lime. Through the greater portion of the State red sandstone abounds, and in parts, near the city especially, white sandstone blends with it. In many localities the villages are built entirely of stone, the roofs even being formed of loosely placed, overlapping slabs. Iron ore is found in the hills north-east of Karauli, but the mines will not pay working expenses; and the iron manufactured in the State is smelted from imported ore.

Forest and Jungle Products.—The hills of Karauli, especially the higher ones, are generally bare of trees, but there are many exceptions. Above the Chambal valley, the commonest tree growing in any quantity together is the *dao* (Lythrum fruticosum), which is scarcely more than a shrub. Other common trees are the *dhák* (Butea frondosa), several kinds of acacias, and also the cotton-tree (Bombax), the *sál* (Shorea robusta), the *garjan*, and the *ním* (Azadirachta indica). But the more valuable timber-trees are not numerous anywhere throughout the State. There is no forest, but groves of trees producing timber for the city are grown some 10 miles south-west of Karauli.

Feræ Naturæ.—Game is abundant in the State. In the wooded

glens near the Chambal, tigers are numerous, and are destructive to the inhabitants as well as to cattle. Bears, *sámbhar*, *nilgái*, and deer likewise abound in this locality. In the uplands, also, game is found wherever there is water. In the neighbourhood of the town there are several covers for game and grass preserves. Hares, brown partridge, quail, and golden plover are the most common kinds of small game. In the large tanks water-fowl are to be found; and in the Chambal wild geese, cranes and wild duck abound, and also otters and crocodiles. In the west of the State snakes are numerous; near the city there are few. Fish are plentiful in the Chambal, in the streams near the city, and in the larger tanks.

Population.—The total population of the State in 1874 was estimated at about 140,000, calculated from a return of the number of houses in the State, five individuals being allowed to each house. The Bráhmans are the most numerous class. The bulk of them are petty traders, who carry their merchandise on small pack-cattle, which are their own property. The Minas, who come next in number, are the largest class of cultivators in the State. The Rájputs, though numerically few, form the most important class. They are almost entirely composed of families of the Jádu clan (to which the Mahárájá belongs); and, like other Rájputs, the Jádu is a brave soldier but a bad agriculturist. The feudal aristocracy of the State consists entirely of Jádu *thákurs* (nobles) connected with the ruling house. They pay a tribute in lieu of constant military service, which is not performed in Karauli; but on military emergency or State occasion they are bound to attend with their retainers, who on these occasions are maintained at the expense of the Rájá. The number of Muhammadans is insignificant everywhere but in the city of Karauli, where Páthans compose the most trusted portion of the State troops. The worship of Vishnu under the name of Krishna is the prevalent form of religion among the Hindus.

Agriculture. — The soil throughout the State is generally light. Except on the banks of the Chambal, where wheat, barley, gram, and tobacco are grown, and in the rocky tracts above, where rice is the chief product, *bájra* (Holcus spicatus) and *joár* (Holcus sorghum) cover a larger portion of the cultivated area than any other crops, and form the staple food of the population. Sugar-cane is grown on a small scale, but it is not of a fine kind. Hemp is grown extensively in the neighbourhood of the city of Karauli. There are three modes of irrigation—from tanks, from wells, and from the rise of the Chambal. Tanks, formed by dams being thrown across the line of rain-drainage, are the principal means of irrigation in the rocky and hilly portions of Karauli. In the beds of these tanks rice is grown in the rainy season, and the stored water often makes possible a grain crop in the spring. Well irrigation is chiefly employed in the districts surrounding the

capital. In the valley of the Chambal, it is only on the verge of the receding water that a crop can be produced through the influence of the river. The banks are usually too high to place the water-line within the reach of irrigating wells.

Manufactures and Trade.—There are very few manufactures in Karauli; a little weaving, dyeing, some wood-turning and stone-cutting form the employment of a small class, but the people are almost exclusively agriculturists. The principal imports are piece-goods, salt, sugar, cotton, buffaloes, and bullocks; the chief exports are rice, cotton, and goats.

Administration.—A considerable part of the revenue is raised from customs, although, of course, the land revenue brings in the greater portion. The gross revenue of Karauli in 1875 amounted to £47,563, and the expenditure to £46,852. There is no regular police force in the State, with the exception of a small body of 25 men kept up in the city for that purpose. The police duties in the districts are performed by the troops. There is a central jail at Karauli city, where there is also a post office and a mint, at which both silver and copper coins are struck. The Karauli rupee is about equal in value to the British rupee. An English and Persian school was established at the capital in 1864, where there are also 7 Hindu schools. Education in the State is generally backward. There is one well-appointed hospital in the city of Karauli, but there are no dispensaries in the districts. A military force is maintained of 250 cavalry, 1535 infantry, 32 artillerymen, with 40 light guns.

Climate, etc.—The rainfall at Karauli city amounted to 33·5 inches in 1871, and 27·2 inches in 1872. Fever, dysentery, and rheumatism are the prevailing diseases. Epidemic disease rarely penetrates into the State.

History.—The Mahárájá of Karauli, Arjun Pál, is the head of the Jádu clan of Rájputs, who claim descent from Krishna, and are regarded as *Yaduvansi*, or descendants of the moon. The clan has always remained in or near the country of Brij round Muttra (Mathura), and once held Biána, which was taken from them by the Muhammadans in 1053 A.D. In 1454, Karauli was conquered by Mahmúd Khiljí, King of Málwá. After the conquest of Málwá by Akbar, the State became incorporated with the Delhi Empire; and on the decline of the Mughal power it appears to have been so far subjugated by the Marhattás that they exacted from it a tribute of £2500 annually. This tribute was transferred to the British in 1817 by the Peshwá, and was remitted by Government on the engagement of the Mahárájá to furnish troops according to his means on the requisition of the British Government; at the same time, the State was taken under British protection. In 1852, Mahárájá Narsinh Pál died, and there being no direct successor,

the question was debated whether the State should lapse to the British Government. It was finally determined to preserve the succession; and an heir was found in Mahárájá Madan Pál, who during the Mutiny of 1857 evinced a loyal spirit, and eventually sent a body of troops against the Kotah mutineers. For these services he was created a G.C.S.I.; his salute was raised from 15 to 17 guns for his lifetime; a debt of £11,700 due by him to the British Government was remitted, and a dress of honour conferred. Madan Pál died in 1869, and the three chiefs who have succeeded him have each been selected by adoption.

Karauli (*Kerowlee*).—Capital of the State of the same name; situated about 70 miles equidistant from Muttra, Gwalior, Agra, Ulwur (Alwar), Jáipur (Jeypore), and Tonk. Lat. 26° 30′ N., long. 77° 4′ E. It is said to derive its name from Kaliánjí, a temple built by Arjan Deo, who likewise founded the city, about A.D. 1348. But it did not prosper, owing to the depredations of a class of Minás, until these were put down by Rájá Gopál Dás, in whose reign Karauli became a considerable town, and fine buildings began to spring up. In 1874, the population was estimated at 28,000 souls. Viewed from some points whence the palace is seen to advantage, the town has a striking appearance. It is surrounded by a wall of sandstone, and is also protected on the north and east by deep winding ravines, cut by the action of water in the level plain. These, if properly defended, would form an obstacle such as would probably prove insuperable to any unscientific invaders. To the south and west, the ground is comparatively level, but advantage has been taken of a conveniently situated *nálá* to form a moat to the city wall; while an outer wall and ditch defended by bastions has been carried along the other bank, so forming a double line of defence. These fortifications are due to Rájá Gopál Dás, and though too strong for the desultory attacks of the Marhattás, would be far less formidable to regular troops than were the mud walls of Bhartpur. The sandstone wall of Karauli, in spite of its handsome appearance, is unsubstantially built, being composed of ill-cemented stones, faced by thin slabs after the fashion which prevails throughout the State wherever sandstone is abundant and buildings of any pretension are erected. The circumference of the town is somewhat under 2¼ miles, and it contains 6 gates, besides 11 posterns. Bráhmans and Mahájans are the most important classes. The streets are narrow and irregular, impassable for carriages, and difficult for any wheeled conveyance. The late Mahárájá Jái Sinh Pál made a commencement of paving the streets, and built an extensive *sarái* for the accommodation of merchants and travellers. The most striking characteristic is the superabundance of sandstone, as the sole building material. The roofs of the poorer houses are formed of slabs, sloping and overlapping one another very

roughly, but not ineffectively arranged, and supported by logs of wood or long triangular pieces of stone. The principal *bázár* stretches east from the westernmost gate towards the palace. It is about half a mile in length, but irregular and wanting in neatness. There are many costly houses and handsome temples. The palace is 200 yards from the eastern wall of the city, and occupies a space of about 150 yards square. In its present state it was erected by Rájá Gopál Dás. The whole block of buildings is surrounded by a lofty bastioned wall, in which there are two fine gates. Within the palace, the Rang Mahál and Diwán-i-Am, with their mirrors and bright colours, are beautiful specimens of native ornament. The Madan Mohanjí, though the chief temple in the town, is of no great beauty. The Saroman temple is a handsome building of red sandstone, decorated with elegant tracery, in the modern Muttra style. The principal gardens are those of Shikárganj, Shikár Mahál, and Khawas Mahál. European visitors are generally accommodated in the building within the Khawas Mahál.

Kardong.—Village in Kángra District, Punjab; one of the principal places in the Subdivision of Láhul. Lies on the left bank of the Bágha, almost immediately opposite Kielang.

Kareng-le-khyeng. — Small village in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Frontier police post.

Kargod.—Town in Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 20′ N., long. 76° 53′ E.; pop. (1871), 3776; number of houses, 803. Remarkable for the number of temples in its vicinity, among them a very fine new one dedicated to Siva, and containing a colossal representation of the bull *Nandi*, a monolith.

Kargun.—Town in Indore State, Central India; now in ruins, but once the capital of the southern part of the old tract of Nimár. Distant from Indore 60 miles south, and from Mhow (Mhau) 49 miles south. Lat. 21° 52′ N., long. 75° 43′ 45″ E.

Karhal. — Central southern *tahsíl* of Máinpurí District, North-Western Provinces; traversed by the Etáwah branch of the Ganges Canal. Area, 221 square miles, of which 110 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 88,850; land revenue, £15,731; total Government revenue, £17,307; rental paid by cultivators, £26,836; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 2⅝d.

Karhal.—Town in Máinpurí District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 27° 0′ 5″ N., long. 78° 58′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 5574, consisting of 3974 Hindus, 1594 Musalmáns, and 6 Christians. Lies on the Etáwah and Máinpurí road, 17 miles south of Máinpurí town. *Bázár*, irregular narrow lanes, well-built houses of leading merchants; brisk local trade in *ghí*, cotton, and indigo. A Sayyid family possesses great influence. *Sarái*, *tahsíli*, police station, school. Local revenue in 1873-74, £125, or 5¼d. per head of population.

Karharbári.—Coal-field in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; lies between 24° 10′ and 24° 14′ N. lat., and between 86° 16′ and 86° 23′ E. long. Area, 11 square miles, of which 8½ miles are coal-bearing. The probable amount of available fuel (excluding small seams and those of inferior quality, such as could not be worked at a profit, also making allowance for waste, etc.) is estimated at 70 million tons. The existence of the field was first brought to notice in 1848, and some coal was raised at the outcrop of several of the seams to test their excellence. Systematic working was introduced in 1851 by Mr. Inman, and in 1855 by Messrs. Ward & Company, railway contractors at Monghyr. In 1856-57, the property held by this firm at Kuldihá and Rámnadi was transferred to the Bengal Coal Company, who now own 6 other mining villages in addition. In 1862, the company discontinued their workings till 1868, since when they have been vigorously prosecuted. The East Indian Railway Company commenced working the Karharbári mine in 1858, and a large quantity of coal was annually carted away to Lakhisarái. In 1862, work was suspended chiefly on account of difficulties of carriage. In 1870, a branch line of the East Indian Railway was constructed to their mines at Karharbári and Srírámpur, and working has been carried on uninterruptedly ever since. The total output up to June 1875 amounted to nearly 350,000 tons. At Karharbári, the railway company hold 2465 acres on a lease from Government for 82 years, at a yearly rent of £5072. At Srírámpur, they have 1408 acres on a perpetual lease from the Rájá, and pay an annual rent of £494. The company work the coal for their own consumption, and not for sale. The miners are chiefly Bhuiyás, Báurís, and Santáls. The quality of the coal of the Karharbári field has been tested by several assays of the mineral from different localities. The best seams disclose from 4·2 and 4·8 to 6·6 per cent. of ash; from 71·8 to 73·1 and 68·6 per cent. of fixed carbon; and from 24 to 22·1 and 24·8 per cent. of volatile matter, respectively. The inferior seams show from 26·5 to 34 and 39 per cent. of ash; from 57·1 to 50·9 and 48·2 per cent. of carbon; and from 16·4 to 15·1 and 12·6 per cent. of volatile matter. The specimens which gave the best results were obtained from localities in the east of the field; the inferior quality being obtained from the south-west. The results from a series of experiments prove that the Karharbári coals are better in quality than those obtained from the Ráníganj field in the ratio of 113 to 100. The principal advantage afforded by the Karharbári field is one of position, as a supplying area for the Upper Provinces and the railway stations west of Lakhisarái, there being a saving of 23 miles of carriage as compared with the Ráníganj mines.

Kariána.—One of the petty States of North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 10 villages, with 7 independent tribute-payers. The

revenue in 1876 was estimated at £2100; tribute is paid of £85 to the British Government, and £30 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Karigatta.—Hill in Mysore District, Mysore State, at the junction of the Lokapávni river with the Káveri (Cauvery). Lat. 12° 26′ N., long. 76° 47′ E. An annual festival (*játra*), held in February or March, is attended by 20,000 people.

Kárikal (*Káraikkál*, 'the fish pass'—Tamil; *Carical, Cariukalla*—Bartolomeo).—French town and settlement within the limits of Tanjore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 55′ 10″ N., long. 79° 52′ 20″ E.; pop. (according to the latest French statistics), 92,516; area, 52 square miles. Situated on the sea, 12 miles north of Negapatam and 6 miles south of Tranquebar. The site was purchased by the French from the Tanjore Rájá in 1738-9; 81 villages were added to the territory in 1748, and this addition was confirmed by treaty in 1754. Kárikal was taken by the English in 1760, restored in 1765, again taken in 1778, and finally restored by treaty in 1816. It formed the base of Lally's operations against Tanjore. The town is neatly built on one of the mouths of the Káveri (Cauvery), and carries on a brisk trade with Ceylon, Europe, and the French colonies, exporting rice and importing chiefly European articles and timber. A Chef de l'Administration, subordinate to the Government of Pondicherri, is in charge of the settlement. On the subject of inland customs a convention exists with the Madras Government, and all salt consumed in French territory is by treaty purchased from the English. The country around the town, a part of the Káveri (Cauvery) delta, is very fertile. Revenue, 400,492 francs; expenditure, 277,204 francs.

Karímganj.—Market village in the east of Sylhet District, Assam, on the Kusiára offshoot of the Surmá or Barák river. Lat. 24° 52′ N., long. 92° 24′ E. Rice, oil-seeds, and raw cotton are exported, in exchange for cotton goods, salt, pulses, tobacco, and bamboos.

Karímganj. — Village in Maimansinh District, Bengal; situated 9 miles east of Kisoríganj. Large *bázár* and jute mart.

Karím Khán.—Village in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 20′ N., and long. 79° 34′ E., on the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), the channel of which is here obstructed by rocks of *kankar* or calcareous conglomerate, which seriously interfere with navigation.

Karjat.—Headquarters of the Karjat Subdivision of Ahmednagar District, Bombay; situated in lat. 18° 33′ N., and long. 75° 3′ E., 36 miles south by east of Ahmednagar town. Pop. (1872), 5535. Post office.

Karkal.—Town in South Kanara District, Madras.—*See* KARAKAL.

Karkam.—Town in Sholápur District, Bombay; situated 13 miles north of Pandharpur. Lat. 17° 52′ N., long. 75° 20′ E.; pop. (1872), 7671. Post office.

Kárkúr (*Carcoor*).—*Ghát* or hill pass in Malabar District, Madras, leading from Malabar into Nílgiri District. Lat. 11° 26′ 20″ to 11° 28′ N., long. 76° 27′ 20″ to 76° 28′ E.

Kárli.—Cave in Poona District, Bombay; situated on the road between Bombay and Poona, in lat. 18° 45′ 20″ N., and long. 73° 31′ 16″ E. It is thus described by Mr. J. Fergusson in his *History of Eastern and Indian Architecture*:—'It is certainly the largest as well as the most complete Chaitya cave hitherto discovered in India, and was excavated at a time when the style was in its greatest purity. In it all the architectural defects of the previous examples are removed; the pillars of the nave are quite perpendicular. The screen is ornamented with sculpture—its first appearance apparently in such a position—and the style had reached a perfection never afterwards surpassed.

'In the cave there is an inscription on the side of the porch, and another on the lion-pillar in front, which are certainly integral, and ascribe its excavation to the Mahárájá Bhuti or Deva Bhuti, who, according to the *Puránas*, reigned B.C. 78; and if this is so, they fix the age of this typical example beyond all cavil.

'The building resembles, to a very great extent, an early Christian church in its arrangements, consisting of a nave and side-aisles, terminating in an apse or semi-dome, round which the aisle is carried. The general dimensions of the interior are 126 ft. from the entrance to the back wall, by 45 ft. 7 in. in width. The side-aisles, however, are very much narrower than in Christian churches, the central one being 25 ft. 7 in., so that the others are only 10 ft. wide, including the thickness of the pillars. As a scale for comparison, it may be mentioned that its arrangement and dimensions are very similar to those of the choir of Norwich Cathedral, or of the Abbaye aux Hommes at Caen, omitting the outer aisles in the latter buildings. The thickness of the piers at Norwich and Caen nearly corresponds to the breadth of the aisles in the Indian temple. In height, however, Kárli is very inferior, being only 42 ft. or perhaps 45 ft. from the floor to the apex, as nearly as can be ascertained.

'Fifteen pillars on each side separate the nave from the aisles; each pillar has a tall base, an octagonal shaft, and richly ornamented capital, on which kneel two elephants, each bearing two figures, generally a man and a woman, but sometimes two females, all very much better executed than such ornaments usually are. The seven pillars behind the altar are plain octagonal piers, without either base or capital, and the four under the entrance gallery differ considerably from those at the sides. The sculptures on the capitals supply the place usually occupied by frieze and cornice in Grecian architecture; and in other examples, plain painted surfaces occupy the same space. Above this springs the roof, semicircular in general section, but somewhat stilted

at the sides, so as to make its height greater than the semi-diameter. It is ornamented even at this day by a series of wooden ribs, probably coeval with the excavation, which prove beyond the shadow of a doubt that the roof is not a copy of a masonry arch, but of some sort of timber construction which we cannot now very well understand.

'Immediately under the semi-dome of the apse, and nearly where the altar stands in Christian churches, is placed the *daghoba*, in this instance a plain dome slightly stilted on a circular drum. As there are no ornaments on it now, and no mortices for woodwork, it probably was originally plastered and painted, or may have been adorned with hangings, which some of the sculptured representations would lead us to suppose was the usual mode of ornamenting these altars. It is surmounted by a Tee, and on this still stand the remains of an umbrella in wood, very much decayed and distorted by age.

'Opposite this is the entrance, consisting of three doorways, under a gallery exactly corresponding with our roodloft, one leading to the centre, and one to each of the side-aisles; and over the gallery the whole end of the hall is open as in all these Chaitya halls, forming one great window, through which all the light is admitted. This great window is formed in the shape of a horse-shoe, and exactly resembles those used as ornaments on the façade of this cave, as well as on those of Bhaja, Bedsa, and at Násik. Within the arch is a framework or centring of wood standing free. This, so far as we can judge, is, like the ribs of the interior, coeval with the building; at all events, if it has been renewed, it is an exact copy of the original form, for it is found repeated in stone in all the niches of the façade, over the doorways, and generally as an ornament everywhere, and with the Buddhist "rail," copied from Sánchi, forms the most usual ornament of the style.

'The presence of the woodwork is an additional proof, if any were wanted, that there were no arches of construction in any of these Buddhist buildings. There neither were nor are any in any Indian building anterior to the Muhammadan Conquest, and very few, indeed, in any Hindu building afterwards.

'To return, however, to Kárli, the outer porch is considerably wider than the body of the building, being 52 ft. wide, and is closed in front by a screen composed of two stout octagonal pillars, without either base or capital, supporting what is now a plain mass of rock, but once ornamented by a wooden gallery forming the principal ornament of the façade. Above this a dwarf colonnade or attic of four columns between pilasters admitted light to the great window; and this again was surmounted by a wooden cornice or ornament of some sort, though we cannot now restore it, since only the mortices remain that attached it to the rock.

'In advance of this screen stands the lion-pillar, in this instance a plain shaft with thirty-two flutes, or rather faces, surmounted by a capital not unlike that at Kesariá, but at Kárli supporting four lions instead of one; they seem almost certainly to have supported a *chakra*, or Buddhist wheel. A similar pillar probably stood on the opposite side, but it has either fallen or been taken down to make way for the little temple that now occupies its place.

'The absence of the wooden ornaments of the external porch, as well as our ignorance of the mode in which this temple was finished laterally, and the porch joined to the main temple, prevents us from judging what the effect of the front would have been if belonging to a free-standing building. But the proportions of such parts as remain are so good, and the effect of the whole so pleasing, that there can be little hesitation in ascribing to such a design a tolerably high rank among architectural compositions.

'Of the interior we can judge perfectly, and it certainly is as solemn and grand as any interior can well be, and the mode of lighting the most perfect—one undivided volume of light coming through a single opening overhead at a very favourable angle, and falling directly on the altar or principal object in the building, leaving the rest in comparative obscurity. The effect is considerably heightened by the closely set thick columns that divide the three aisles from one another, as they suffice to prevent the boundary walls from ever being seen; and, as there are no openings in the walls, the view between the pillars is practically unlimited.

'These peculiarities are found more or less developed in all the other caves of the same class in India, varying only with the age and the gradual change that took place from the more purely wooden forms of these caves to the lithic or stone architecture of the more modern ones. This is the principal test by which their relative ages can be determined, and it proves incontestably that the Kárli cave was excavated not very long after stone came to be used as a building material in India.'

Karmála. — Chief town and municipality of the Karmála Subdivision, Sholápur District, Bombay. Lat. 18° 24′ N., long. 75° 14′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 6759. Situated 69 miles north-west of Sholápur, and 11 miles north of the Jeur station on the south-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Municipal income, £229. Post office and dispensary.

Karmar. — One of the petty States of Jhaláwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £511; tribute is paid of £14 to the British Government, and £3 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Karnagarh.—Hill, or more properly plateau, in Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 14′ 45″ N., long. 86° 58′ 30″ E. It formerly contained

the lines of the Hill Rangers, a body of troops raised from among the hill people by Mr. Augustus Cleveland, Collector of the District, in 1780, for the pacification of the lawless jungle tribes. The corps was disbanded in 1863 on the re-organization of the native army. A wing of a native regiment is now cantoned here. The only objects of interest are two Sivaite temples of some celebrity, and two monuments erected to the memory of Mr. Cleveland,—one by Government, and the other by the landholders of the District.

Karnál.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 29° 9′ and 30° 11′ N. lat., and between 76° 13′ and 77° 15′ 30″ E. long. Area, 2351 square miles; population in 1868, 610,927 persons. Karnál is a District of the Delhi Division. It is bounded on the north by the District of Umballa (Ambála) and the Native State of Patiála, on the west by the Native States of Patiála and Jínd and by the District of Rohták, on the south by the District of Delhi, and on the east by the river Jumna (Jamuná). The administrative headquarters are at KARNAL town.

Physical Aspects.—Karnál forms a portion of the low dividing ridge which separates the watersheds of the Indus and the Jumna (Jamuná), its north-western angle being drained by small streams which swell the freshet torrent of the Ghaggar, while its eastern front slopes gently down to the banks of the Jumna itself. The District falls naturally into two divisions—the *bángar*, or upland plain, and the *khádar*, or low-lying land, which fringes the valley of the great river. The former consists in its highest portion of a rich grazing country, covered with rank and luxuriant grasses, whose monotonous level is broken by belts of brushwood, and interspersed with large *jhíls*, or reedy lakes. These open pastures are succeeded to the south and east by a cultivated zone, through whose midst the Western Jumna Canal distributes its various branches. Three main channels convey the water towards Delhi, Hissár, and Rohták, while minor courses penetrate the fields around in every direction. The banks of the larger streams are fringed with magnificent forest trees, and groves of mangoes mark the neighbourhood of every temple or homestead. Unhappily, however, the high level of the canal, and the difficulty of providing an impervious bank, have led to much flooding, which has produced its usual bad effects on the health of this region. A line of swamps runs along the side of the embankment, and seriously interferes, not only with the sanitary condition, but also with the cultivation of the neighbouring villages. Government is at present engaged on an extensive improvement in the upper course of the canal, which, it is hoped, will remedy this defect, and render the work an unmixed benefit to the people whose lands it was designed to fertilize. Between the irrigated country and the river stretches the *khádar*, or wide valley of the Jumna. It is less

abundantly wooded than the remainder of the District, though even here date-palms abound by the water-side, and a thick jungle overhangs the banks of the river. Indeed, as a whole, Karnál is better supplied with trees than most of the plain country of the Punjab. The Jumna itself here presents the usual characteristics of the upper part of its course. Sandbanks shift from one side to the other of the main channel, and from time to time the whole stream suddenly changes its bed, transferring half a dozen villages together from Muzaffarnagar to Karnál, or *vice versâ*, with the utmost impartiality. The District is famous for its sport; black buck, *nílgai*, and other large game being plentiful in the northern jungles; while the canal and its attendant *jhíls* afford a home for numerous water-fowl, whose depredations seriously interfere with the out-turn of the rice crop.

History.—No District of India can boast of a more ancient history than Karnál, as almost every town or stream is connected with the sacred legends of the *Mahábhárata*. The city of Karnál itself, from which the modern District has taken its name, is said by tradition to owe its foundation to Rájá Karna, the mythical champion of the Kauravas in the great war which forms the theme of the national epic. From the same authority we learn that Pánipat, in the south of the District, was one of the pledges demanded from Duryodhan by Yudisthira as the price of peace in that famous conflict. In historical times, the plains of Pánipat have three times proved the theatre of battles which decided the fate of Upper India. It was here that Ibráhím Lodí and his vast host were defeated in 1526 by the veteran army of Bábar, when the Mughal dynasty first made good its pretensions to the Empire of Delhi. Thirty years later, in 1556, the greatest of that line, Akbar, reasserted the claims of his family on the same battle-field against the Hindu general of the house of Sher Sháh, which had driven the heirs of Bábar from the throne for a brief interval. Finally, under the walls of Pánipat, on the 7th of January 1761, was fought the battle which shattered the Marhattá confederation, and raised Ahmad Sháh Duráni for a while to the position of arbiter of the entire empire. During the troublous period which ensued, the aggressive Síkhs managed to introduce themselves into the country about Karnál; and in 1767, one of their chieftains, Desu Sinh, appropriated the fort of Káithal, which had been built during the reign of Akbar. His descendants, the Bháis of Káithal, were reckoned amongst the most important cis-Sutlej princes. The country immediately surrounding the town of Karnál was occupied about the same date by the Rájá of Jínd; but in 1795, it was captured by the ubiquitous Marhattás, and bestowed by them upon George Thomas, the military adventurer of Hariána. Thomas was dispossessed in 1802 by a combination of Síkhs and Marhattás; and his territory was included in

the dominions ceded by the Peshwá to the British in the succeeding year. The subsequent arrangements were of too complicated a nature to be fully detailed here. The town of Karnál fell to the share of a Patháh, whose family still enjoys its revenue. The *parganá* of Pánipat formed part of the demesne assigned for the maintenance of the imperial family; while Káithal and other petty States remained in the hands of their Síkh possessors. Under Síkh rule, the sole object of the local governments appears to have been the collection of the largest possible revenue. Every rupee that could be extracted from the native cultivators was pressed into the fiscal bag of their Síkh over-lords, while cattle-lifting and open violence went unpunished on every side. Sir H. Lawrence, who effected the land settlement after the British occupation in 1843, described the Síkh system as one of 'sparing the strong and squeezing the weak.' In 1819, the Delhi territory was parcelled out into Districts, one of which had its headquarters at Pánipat. The northern portion of the present District, held by the Síkh princes, lapsed from time to time into the hands of the British. Káithal fell to us on the death of Desu Sinh's last representative, in 1843. The disorder of the Síkh Government was immediately suppressed by prompt measures; two large cattle-lifting raids were made within a week of the British occupation, and the timely severity with which the culprits were apprehended and punished taught the predatory classes what treatment the lawless might expect from the hands of their new masters. The petty State of Thanesar lapsed in 1850, and its capital was made for a time the headquarters of the united District; but after the Mutiny of 1857, when the Delhi territory was transferred to the Punjab, Thanesar District was broken up, and its *parganás* redistributed in 1862 between Karnál and Umballa (Ambála). The course of events during late years has been marked by few incidents. The towns are not generally in a flourishing condition, and the opening of the railway on the opposite bank of the Jumna has somewhat prejudicially affected the trade of Karnál. But although the District cannot compare with its wealthy neighbours in the Doáb, it still possesses a considerable commerce and great agricultural resources.

Population.—Owing to numerous territorial changes in the *parganás* at present composing Karnál District, it is impossible to give comparative statistics of the number of inhabitants previous to the Census of 1868. In that year an enumeration was taken over an area of 2351 square miles, and disclosed a population of 610,927. These returns show an increase since 1853-55, in every part of the District except the Indri *parganá* (the older statistics for which are not obtainable), of about 17½ per cent. The number of villages was found to be 908, and of houses, 142,644. From these figures the following averages may be

deduced:—Persons per square mile, 264; villages per square mile, 0·39; persons per village, 672; houses per square mile, 60·65; persons per house, 4·28. Classified according to age, there were—330,763 males, and 280,164 females; proportion of males, 54·15 per cent. The excessive preponderance of males may be held to imply the former prevalence of female infanticide. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years of age—113,212 boys, and 94,215 girls; total children, 207,427, or 33·96 per cent. of the whole population. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindu element decidedly preponderates, its adherents being returned at 356,305, or 58·32 per cent. of the inhabitants. The Muhammadans rank second, with 151,723, or 24·83 per cent. The Síkhs form a mere sprinkling of 9295 persons, being only 1·52 per cent. of the total. The various minor sects, included under the general head of 'others' in the Census report, give an aggregate of 93,604, or 15·32 per cent. In the ethnical classification, the Játs rank first, numbering 74,840. As usual, they represent the chief agricultural element, being careful and thrifty cultivators; yet here, as in most other Districts, they are confined to the once sterile uplands, while the Rájputs and Gújars occupy the fruitful *khádar*. Second in numerical order come the Bráhmans, with 52,396, most of whom are engaged in tillage, being found most thickly in the Jumna valley. The Rájputs number 47,860 persons, chiefly Muhammadans, and bear the same reputation for thriftlessness as elsewhere. The Chamárs, who form the majority of the landless labouring class just across the Jumna in the Upper Doáb, sink here to the fourth place, with 37,053. The pastoral Gújars number 20,857 in all, of whom about one-third are converts to Islám; they have not yet adopted an agricultural life, and their villages are scattered about the low-lying *khádar* country. The occupation returns show 304,282 persons engaged in agriculture, and 306,645 otherwise employed. There were 5 towns at the date of the Census (1868) with a population exceeding 5000—namely, KARNAL, 27,022; PANIPAT, 25,276; KAITHAL, 14,940; SEWAN, 6206; and KUNJPURAH, 5163. The total urban population accordingly amounted to 78,607 persons, or 11 per cent. of the inhabitants of the District. The languages in common use are Urdu and Hindí.

Agriculture.—The total area under cultivation in Karnál is returned at 645,120 acres; while the uncultivated area amounts to 860,800 acres, of which 578,027 are cultivable. The principal spring crop of the year is wheat, the yield of the irrigated villages being particularly large. The autumn harvest consists of rice, cotton, and sugar-cane, besides millets and pulses for home consumption. The area under each staple in 1872-73 was as follows:—Spring crops—wheat, 129,410 acres; barley, 29,530 acres; gram, 40,892 acres: Autumn crops—rice,

55,718 acres; *joár*, 87,780 acres; *bájra*, 25,611 acres; cotton, 37,055 acres; and sugar-cane, 14,188 acres. The growth of the more lucrative crops is on the increase, under the stimulus given by the canal, which ensures a fair return for the labour expended even in unfavourable seasons. The average out-turn per acre is estimated at 1280 lbs. for rice, 28 lbs. for indigo, 125 lbs. for cotton, 1724 lbs. for sugar, 1600 lbs. for wheat, and 560 lbs. for the inferior grains. Irrigation is extensively practised, 242,845 acres being artificially supplied with water; and of these, 108,460 are irrigated by Government works, and 134,385 by private enterprise. The use of manure is on the increase. When the Government stud farm was established at Karnál in 1841, the villagers could not be induced to cart away the manure as a gift; but they are now willing to pay a fair price for the use of it. The saline efflorescence known as *reh*, so deleterious in its effects that even grass will not grow on the spots where it makes its appearance, has caused much trouble in the neighbourhood of the canal. The village communities are strong and united, most of them owning their lands by the tenure known as *bháyáchára*, or brotherhood. Traces of the primitive communal system, however, still survive; and one case is recorded in which a community voluntarily gave up its modern *bháyáchára* organization, and redistributed its lands on the ancestral principle. The greater portion of the soil is held by tenants-at-will. Rents rule as follows, according to the nature of the crop for which the ground is suitable:—Rice lands, from 6s. to 10s. per acre; cotton lands, from 4s. to 6s.; sugar-cane lands, from 8s. to 14s.; wheat lands, irrigated, from 6s. to 10s.—dry, from 4s. to 6s.; inferior grains, irrigated, 4s. to 6s.—dry, 3s. to 4s. per acre. Agricultural wages are still paid in kind, at the same rates which have been current from time immemorial. Prices in 1873 ruled as follows:—Wheat, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.; barley, 38 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 11⅝d. per cwt.; *joár* and Indian corn, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 8¾d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The District is not remarkable for its commerce or manufactures. Grain and other raw materials are exported to Umballa (Ambála), Hissár, and Delhi; while the return trade consists of European piece-goods, salt, and refined sugar. The produce of the canal villages goes *viâ* Karnál, where a brisk trade is carried on in either direction along the Grand Trunk Road. A considerable quantity of cotton is woven for local use, the number of looms being returned at 4685, and the annual value of their out-turn at £27,757. Sal-ammoniac is obtained from the clay of *tahsíls* Káithal and Gúla to the value of £3450 per annum. Karnál town has a few blanket factories, and ornamental glass-ware is made at Pánipat. The District has no railway, but the Grand Trunk Road passes through its midst, connecting it with Delhi on one side, and Umballa on the other.

There are 58 miles of metalled and 154 miles of unmetalled road. The Jumna is used as a waterway for flat-bottomed boats, and the main canal, with the Delhi branch, is navigable by small native craft.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, two extra-Assistant Commissioners, and three *tahsíldárs*, with their deputies, besides the usual medical and constabulary officers. The revenue in 1872-73 amounted to £78,847; of which £67,048 was derived from the land-tax. The other principal items are stamps and local rates. For police purposes the District is subdivided into 12 police circles (*thánás*). The regular police amounted in 1874 to 456 men of all grades, supplemented by a municipal force of 78 constables; giving a total establishment, for the protection of persons and property, of 534 men, or 1 policeman to every 4·32 square miles of the area and every 1125 of the population. The number of persons brought to trial for all offences, great or small, during the year 1871 was 2032, or 1 in every 300 inhabitants. There is one jail at Karnál town, with an average daily number of 212 prisoners in 1872. The average cost per inmate was £4, 16s. 6d.; while the cash earnings of each labouring prisoner amounted to 14s. 1⅛d. Education is making some progress, though not so rapidly as could be desired. In 1872-73, there were 99 schools in operation within the District, more than half of which were in receipt of Government aid. The total number of pupils on the rolls was 2541; and the sum expended on instruction from the public funds amounted to £1409. By the Census of 1868, 18,439 persons were returned as able to read and write. The District is subdivided, for fiscal and administrative purposes, into 3 *tahsíls*, and contains 641 villages, owned by 63,232 shareholders. There are municipalities at KARNAL, PANIPAT, KAITHAL, PUNDRI, INDRI, GOARA, and NAULTA. The aggregate income of the first five amounted to £3325 in 1871-72, and the incidence of taxation per head of population was 10⅞d.

Medical Aspects.—The total rainfall in the District amounted to 32·1 inches in 1870-71; 33·1 inches in 1871-72; and 33·0 inches in 1872-73. In the portion of the uplands watered by the canal, malarious fever and enlargement of the spleen are very prevalent, owing to stagnant morasses which result from excessive percolation. Some of the villages have suffered terribly from these causes. The total number of deaths recorded in 1870, 1871, and 1872, was—14,769, or 24 per thousand; 12,755, or 21 per thousand; and 13,370, or 22 per thousand, respectively. The fever-rate for the same three years was 14·33, 11·24, and 12·02 per thousand. Bowel complaints are also common, and small-pox and cholera appear yearly in a more or less epidemic form.

Karnál. — Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Karnál District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 42′ 17″ N., long. 77° 1′ 45″ E. Pop. (1868), 27,022, consisting of 13,582 Hindus, 9152 Muhammadans, 13 Síkhs, 223 Christians, and 4052 'others.' Founded, according to tradition, by Rájá Karna, champion of the Kauravas in the great war of the *Mahábhárata*, and certainly a city of immemorial antiquity. Seized by the Rájás of Jínd about the middle of the last century, and wrested from them in 1795 by George Thomas, the adventurer of Hariána. Conferred by Lord Lake in 1803 upon Nawáb Muhammad Khán, a Mandil Pathán. Occupied for many years as a British cantonment, but finally abandoned in 1841. Stands upon comparatively high ground, just above the old bank of the Jumna, overlooking the *khádar*, or lowland tract. The river now flows 7 miles away to the east; but the Western Jumna Canal passes just beneath the city, and, intercepting the drainage, causes malarious fever. A wall 12 feet in height encloses the town, and forms the back of many houses. Narrow tortuous streets; water supply, from wells, contains much impurity. The civil station stretches to the west of the town, where the cantonment formerly lay, and comprises the court-house and treasury, *tahsíli*, police station, staging bungalow, and several *saráis*, besides a small church. In the town are the District and many other schools, charitable dispensary, and town hall. The Government maintains a large stud farm. Brisk trade in the produce of the canal-villages with Delhi and Umballa (Ambála). Manufacture of country cloth for local consumption, and blankets for export. The latter trade employs about 100 looms. The opening of the railway on the opposite side of the Jumna has somewhat prejudiced the commercial position of Karnál. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1532, or 1s. 3⅜d. per head of population (23,984) within municipal limits.

Karnaphulí.—River of Bengal; rises in a lofty range of hills beyond the north-east border of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, in lat 22° 55′ N., and long. 92° 44′ E.; and, after flowing a circuitous course southwards and westwards, finally falls into the Bay of Bengal, in lat. 22° 12′ N., and long. 91° 49′ 30″ E., 12 miles below the town and port of CHITTAGONG, which is situated on its right bank. As far up as Chittagong town, the river is navigable by steamers and sea-going vessels; and for large native cargo boats as high as KASALANG in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, a distance by river of about 96 miles. Beyond Kásálang, for a distance of 20 miles, the river is navigable by smaller craft; but above this point navigation is practically stopped by a succession of low falls and long rocky slopes, about a mile in length, known as the BARKAL rapids. Following still up stream, the river narrows considerably as it enters the higher ranges of hills. Its course continues north for some distance, and then sweeps to the east till the DEMAGIRI falls are

reached, some three days' journey from Barkal. Above this, it becomes an insignificant stream in a rocky bed, only navigable by the smallest canoes. The chief tributaries of the Karnaphulí are the Kásálang, Chingrí, Kaptái, and Rankheong rivers in the Hill Tracts, and the Haldá in Chittagong District, the latter a navigable stream which empties itself into the main river from the north, being navigable by native boats for 24 miles throughout the year. Principal river-side towns and villages—KASALANG, RANGAMATI, CHANDRAGUNA, RANGUNIA, and CHITTAGONG.

Karnatic (*Kannada; Kanara; Karnata; Karnataka-desa*, 'the Kanarese country').—The name applied by modern writers to Dravida or the Tamil country—that is, the country from Cape Comorin to the Northern Circars, lying east of the Gháts, and reaching to the sea on the Coromandel coast. Including Nellore, which is a Telugu-speaking District, it stretches from 8° 10′ to 16° N. lat., and from 77° 19′ to 80° 19′ E. long. The modern application of the name Karnatic includes the historic governments of Arcot, Madura, and Tanjore, or, going back to a yet earlier period, the kingdoms of Chola, Pandya, and part of Chera, —countries, as Wilkes says, never anciently included in the Karnatic. The boundaries of the true Karnatic, or Karnataka-desa, are given by the same authority as 'commencing near the town of Bídar in the latitude of 18° 45′ north, about 60 miles north-west from Haidarábád (Hyderabad); following the course of this language to the south-east, it is found to be limited by a waving line which nearly touches Adoni, winds to the west of Gooty, skirts the town of Anantapúr, and, passing through Nandidrúg, touches the range of the Eastern Gháts; thence pursuing their southern course to the mountainous pass of Gazzalhati, it continues to follow the abrupt turn caused by the great chasm of the western hills between the towns of Coimbatore, Palatchi, and Palghát; and, sweeping to the north-west, skirts the edges of the precipitous Western Gháts, nearly as far north as the sources of the Kistna; whence following first an eastern and afterwards a north-eastern course, it terminates in rather an acute angle near Bídar, already described as its northern limit.'

This country was ruled by the Ballál dynasty, holding court at Dwára Samudra, from 1133 to 1326, when, upon being defeated by the Muhammadans, Ballál Deo retired to TONNUR, in Mysore, where his descendants remained as feudatories of Vijáyanagar. The latter dynasty, which came into power in 1336 and survived till 1564, built Vellore and Chandragore in 1490 A.D., and in 1515 had reputedly conquered the whole of Dravida. Its victorious armies had, at any rate, penetrated beyond GINGI. It was these conquests that probably led to the extension of the term Karnatic, the name of the original Vijáyanagar kingdom, to the forts and their surrounding tracts

in the plains; and this latter region came to be called Karnata Payanghát, or lowlands, to distinguish it from Karnata Bálághát, or the hill country, the original Karnatic. When the Musalmán kings of Golconda and Bijápur ousted the Vijáyanagar dynasty, they divided the country between them into Karnatic Haidarábád (or Golconda) and Karnatic Bijápur, both being subdivided into Payanghát and Bálághát. At this time, according to Wilkes, the northern boundary of Karnata (Karnatic) was the Tungabhadra. Speaking of this period and the modern misapplication of the name, Bishop Caldwell says: 'When the Muhammadans arrived in Southern India, they found that part of it with which they first became acquainted—the country above the Gháts, including Mysore and part of Telingána—called the Karnataka country. In course of time, by a misapplication of terms, they applied the same name Karnatak, or Carnatic, to designate the country below the Gháts, as well as that which was above. The English have carried the misapplication a step further, and restricted the name to the country below the Gháts, which never had any right to it whatever. Hence the Mysore country, which is properly the true Karnatic, is no longer called by that name; and what is now geographically termed 'the Karnatic' is exclusively the country below the Gháts, on the Coromandel coast, including the whole of the Tamil country and the Telugu-speaking District of Nellore.'

Karnprayág.—Village in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces; situated at the junction of the Pindar and the Alaknanda. Lat. 30° 15′ N., long. 79° 14′ 40″ E. Forms one of the five sacred halting-places on the pilgrimage to Himáchal. A *jhúla* or rope bridge crosses the Pindar. Elevation above sea level, 2560 feet.

Karnúl (*Kurnoul*, *Karnulu*, *Canoul*—Orme; *Kandanúl*—Hamilton).—A British District in the Madras Presidency; bounded on the north by the rivers Tungabhadra and Krishna (which separate it from the Nizám's Dominions) and by Kistna District, on the south by Cuddapah and Bellary, on the east by Nellore and Kistna, and on the west by Bellary; lies between 14° 54′ and 16° 14′ N. lat., and between 77° 46′ and 79° 15′ E. long. Area, 7151 square miles; population (according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879), 914,432. The administrative headquarters are at KARNUL town.

Physical Aspects.—Two long mountain ranges, the Nallamaláis and the Yellamaláis, extend in parallel lines, north and south, through the centre of the District. The Nallamalái range is about 70 miles long in Karnúl, and nearly 25 miles broad in the widest parts. The principal heights are Biranikonda (3149 feet), Gundlabrahmeswaram (3055 feet), and Durugapukonda (3086 feet). There are five plateaux on this range, of which the principal is that of Gundlabrahmeswaram, 2700 feet high, reached by two paths of easy gradient. On this a bungalow has

been built, but the site is hardly suited for a sanitarium. The Yellamalái is a low range, generally flat-topped with scarped sides. The highest point is about 2000 feet. These two ranges divide the District into three well-defined sections. The eastern section, called the Cumbum (Kambham) valley, is about 600 feet above sea level, and is very hilly. The Velikonda (2000 feet) range, the main edge of the Eastern Gháts, bounds this valley on the east. Several low ridges run parallel to the Nallamaláis, broken here and there by gorges, through which mountain streams take their course. Several of these gaps were dammed across under native rule, and tanks formed, for purposes of cultivation. One of the tanks so formed is the magnificent Cumbum Tank, closed in by a dam across the Gundlakamma river. It covers an area of nearly 15 square miles, and irrigates about 6000 acres of land, yielding a revenue of nearly £6000 a year. The northern part of the valley is drained by the Gundlakamma, the southern part by the Sagilair, a tributary of the Pennár. Both these rivers rise on the Nallamaláis. From this valley, the Nandikanama *ghát* (highest point 2000 feet) and the Mantral Pass lead across the Nallamaláis to the central division. This is a very extensive, flat, open valley, between 700 and 800 feet above sea level, and covered with black cotton-soil. Northward, it is crossed by the watershed between the Pennár and the Kistna, and it is drained by the Bhavanási to the north and the Kundair to the south. In the hot months, the cotton plains present an arid appearance. On the hillsides, however, green woodlands and private gardens are seen, watered by the streams and springs which rise in the neighbouring hills. The canal of the Madras Irrigation Company is carried right down this valley. On the flank of the hills, bounded by the two valleys, stone implements were recently discovered by the geological officers. It has been suggested that the people who used them lived on these hills when the valleys were still under water. The western division differs in its features from the other two. It forms the northern end of the eastern edge of the Mysore Plateau; and lies 900 feet above the sea at Karnúl town, on its northern extremity, and 1700 feet at Peapalli, 4 miles north of its southern limits. It is dotted with bare rocky hills and long ridges, and is drained from south to north by the Hindri, which falls into the Tungabhadra at Karnúl.

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the Tungabhadra and the Kistna, which bound the District on the north. When in flood, the Tungabhadra averages 900 yards broad and 15 feet deep. It is usually crossed by means of basket boats, some of which are of large size. In 1860, an anicut or weir was built across the river at Sunkesala, 18 miles above Karnúl town, and a canal dug for the double purpose of irrigation and navigation. After the floods subside, a fine descrip-

tion of melon is grown in the river-bed. Small communities of fishermen, who monopolize the ferrying trade, live in villages on the banks of the river, but they complain that since the construction of the anicut, the fishing industry has fallen off considerably. The Kistna in Karnúl District flows chiefly through uninhabited jungles, sometimes in long smooth reaches, with intervening shingly rapids. The average fall of the river is about 1½ foot per mile above the junction and 4 feet below it; the depth in high flood varies from 25 to 40 feet. The Bhavanási, which rises on the Nallamaláis, drains the northern part of the watershed, and falls into the Kistna at Sungameswaram, a place of pilgrimage. Below their junction is a whirlpool (*chakratirtam*) which is regarded as holy by the native pilgrims. The Kundair, a rapid stream, rises on the western Yellamaláis. Winding round the hills, it drains the central valley and falls into the Pennár. The Gundlakamma rises in the Nallamaláis, and, after receiving two other mountain torrents, passes through the Cumbum gorge, where it is formed into a tank. Emerging again from the tank, and obstructed in its easterly course by the base of the Velikonda range, it makes a remarkable curve towards the north, and flows through Kistna and Nellore Districts to the sea. It is rapid, deep, and erosive, often injuring the wells on its banks, and has a minimum flow of 800 cubic feet of water per second. The Gundlakamma and the Sagilair are utilized for cultivation by means of rough low dams thrown across them. In the Bhavanási, temporary dams are constructed every year.

Geology.—The rocks of the District belong to three different formations, corresponding to its three great physical divisions. In the Kundair valley or Karnúl formation, shales, limestones, and quartzites are the prevailing rocks. The limestone makes very good building material, and resembles the Nigrí stone, with which many of the railway stations are built. The limestone found near Karnúl is used for lithographic purposes. Nearly the whole of the Kundair valley, including the Nandikotkúr *táluk* at its head, the lands on the banks of the Hindri, and about one-fifth of the Cumbum valley on the banks of the Gundlakamma and Sagilair, are covered with cotton-soil. The minerals found in Karnúl District are diamonds, steatite, iron, lead, copper. Running from the Nallamaláis and Yellamaláis are several thermal springs, of which the Mahánandi and the Kalwa Buggas are sufficiently copious to irrigate a good deal of land.

Forests.—There are three recognised forest divisions in the District—the Nallamalái, the Vellikonda, and the Yellamalái. The first two are conserved by the Forest Department, and yield a revenue which in 1875-76 amounted to £2700. The Nallamaláis are said to contain the finest forests on the eastern side of the Presidency, covering an area of about 2000 square miles. The chief timber-trees found here

are teak and *yepi* (Hardwickia binata). The jungles on the western slope are tolerably thick, but those on the eastern flank are thin and poor. In the northern parts, where the jungle is poor, there are extensive grassy level lands, which afford pasture to numerous herds of cattle from Nellore and Kistna Districts. The grazing lands are annually let for about £70 or £80. The Yellamalái Hills are generally bare of trees on their flat tops, but their slopes and the plains below are clothed with shrubs of all kinds and some stunted trees, but no valuable timber. These jungles are in charge of the Collector, and yielded a revenue in 1875-76 of £518. This revenue is constituted into a local fund, and spent on works of public utility, such as planting groves, sinking wells, etc. The jungle products—found chiefly in the Nallamalái forest—are gall-nuts, honey, wax, tamarinds, stick-lac, and bamboo rice.

Wild Animals.—Tigers are numerous in the Nallamaláis, and commit great havoc among the herds of cattle pastured in the jungles. Occasionally a tiger is known to stray into the plains. In 1867, a man-eater infested the Nandikanama Pass, and a reward of £100 was offered for its death. The animal was at last killed; but it was soon found that it was not the only one that did the mischief. The usual reward, £3, 10s., for killing tigers was raised to £30. Since then their numbers have been considerably lessened, and the reward has now been reduced to £10. For the protection of travellers, the jungles on either side of the Nandikanama Pass are annually cleared at a cost of about £100 from local funds. The other animals of the District include cheetas, wolves, hyænas, foxes, bears, etc. The number of deaths caused by wild beasts between 1867 and 1875 was 163, of which 64 occurred in 1867. The average amount spent in rewards for the destruction of wild beasts is £250 a year. Spotted deer, wild goats, several varieties of antelopes, are also found on the mountains. Bison are seen in the northern Nallamaláis. Porcupines and pigs abound in the jungles, and commit depredations on the crops. The small game are ducks, partridges, snipe, florican, doves, and storks. In the Tungabhadra and the deeper reaches of the Kistna, the mahsír, sable, etc. attain considerable size. A mahsír brought before Dr. Day, when he visited Karnúl, weighed 38 lbs., and another was stated to weigh 50 or 60 lbs. No revenue is derived from fisheries. Snakes, chiefly cobras, kill on an average 70 people annually. Formerly, small rewards were given for the destruction of snakes, but this practice has been discontinued. Tiger, cheeta, and deer skins, and antelope horns, are sold in small quantities.

Population.—The regular Census of 1871 (according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879) returned a total of 914,432 inhabitants, including the wild tribes; average number of persons per house, 4·5. The

Hindus numbered 819,458, of whom 27,483 were Bráhmans, 2981 Kshattriyas, 35,230 Chettis (merchants and traders), and 237,507 Vallálars or Kapus and other good castes. The most numerous of the lower castes is the Telugus or Chambadavins (101,385), who are fishermen, hunters, and palanquin-bearers. Their women sell jungle fruits. Of the Muhammadans, 7195 are Sayyids, 49,326 Shiás, and 4058 Patháns. There are about 400 Wahábís, and as many Mithilis, who are considered as fanatics, but live a quiet life. There are only 11 'reported' Buddhists or Jains in the District. The number of Christians is about 3844, chiefly Roman Catholics, whose principal station is at Polúr, founded in the time of the Nawábs, about 1789 A.D. The Catholics of this station originally belonged to the Kapu caste, and their conversion to Christianity has not made any material change in their manners and customs. They eat and drink with Hindus, and in several cases intermarry with them. They have founded a village named Kothala, and are generally well off. The Protestant stations are Kandiál, Muthialpád, and Karnúl. The former two were founded in 1855, and the last (Baptist Mission) in 1876. The Protestant converts are almost entirely low-caste natives in rural tracts. The language of the District is Telugu. In Pattikonda *táluk*, a large number speak Kanarese.

The wild tribes or Chenchus live on the Nallamaláis in small communities called *gudems*. Each *gudem* includes several tribes, and has a portion of the hills allotted to it by common consent. The Chenchus do not transfer their rights to the hill produce to each other, but occasionally give a portion as dowry to their daughters. They are unwilling to cultivate, but are sometimes employed by the villagers in the plains to watch their fields during the harvest. In former times, they were allowed by villagers a kind of black-mail; but since the introduction of the police force, this has been discontinued, and some of them are employed as *ghát taliaris* or road watchmen. During the hill festival they collect fees from pilgrims. Some of them also enjoy *ináms* (free lands) for guarding the jungles. Their language is chiefly Telugu, and in this District they do not appear to have preserved any dialect of their own.

The principal towns are — KARNUL (pop. (1871), 25,579), NANDIAL (9378), CUMBUM (7137), GUDUR (5825), MEDDIKERA (8586), KODUMUR (6064), and PAIKALI (5076).

Agriculture.—The chief crops grown in Karnúl are—rice, wheat, and other cereals; gram, cotton, tobacco, indigo, sugar-cane, betel, chillies, etc. Most of these are sown in June or July, and reaped in September or October. The staple of the District is *cholam* (Sorghum vulgare), of which the principal varieties are the yellow and white *jonna*. The yellow *jonna* is the early crop, and is sown in red as well as in black soil. The white *jonna*, the later crop, is sown in September or October, and

reaped in February and March. Rice is generally irrigated. No improvement has taken place in the mode of cultivation or in the quality of produce, but within the last twenty years there has been a very great extension of the area under the principal crops. Cotton is largely cultivated, but there has been no consequent decrease in the cultivation of food grains; other fibres are cultivated only to a small extent for home consumption. The total area under cultivation in 1877 was 2,089,689 acres; the area uncultivated but capable of cultivation was 1,017,389 acres, including forest lands; and the extent of uncultivable waste, 1,396,602 acres. *Cholam* occupied 843,211 acres, or forty per cent. of the total cultivated area. The lowest average assessment of rice lands in Karnúl is 9s. an acre, and the highest average, 13s. The produce of paddy from an acre of land assessed at 9s. averages 400 Madras measures, equal to 1170 lbs.; and that from an acre assessed at 13s., 800 to 1000 measures. The value of the paddy in ordinary years is 24 measures (of 2¾ lbs.) for a rupee. A second crop, obtained only in exceptional cases, may be taken as three-fourths of the first crop in quantity, and considerably less than three-fourths in value. The *rayats*, as a rule, cultivate their own lands. Owners of very large holdings sublet some of their fields and employ labourers on others. The wages of agricultural day-labourers and artisans are usually paid in kind. When paid in cash, coolies receive from 3¾d. to 4½d. a day; blacksmiths, bricklayers, and carpenters, 7½d. to 1s. 6d. The average price of best rice in 1870-71 was 7s. 7d., and of *cholam*, 4s. 1½d. per *maund* of 82 lbs.

Tenures.—The land tenures of the District are:—(1) *Rayatwári, i.e.* land held direct from Government. (2) *Jágír* and *Shrotriam*, or villages granted to individuals by former governments. (3) Minor *inám*—lands held rent-free or at favourable rates for personal benefit. If the *inám* is unenfranchised, it is liable to reversion to Government on failure of lineal heirs. (4) Service *inám*, granted for the support of pagodas and mosques, or for the benefit of the village community, either rent-free or subject to the payment of a small quit-rent. (5) Joint tenure. *Shrotriam* villages are generally held in coparcenary. In such cases the *rayats* have rights of occupancy, and cannot be ejected unless they fail to pay the rent, which may be either a share of the produce, a fixed quantity of grain, or a money payment. (6) *Dasanandam*—land held on condition of repairing irrigation works, for which the owner is allowed a specified quantity of land or a reduction averaging one-fourth of his assessment.

There is not much waste land in the plains, but there is a good deal in the Nallamaláis, which was cultivated in ancient times, but is now overgrown with jungle. In 1854, Captain Nelson of the Madras Invalid Corps settled here to restore a large ruined tank and reclaim the jungle;

but after several years' residence, he gave up the attempt. Manure is chiefly used for garden and 'wet' crops; but to the west of the Nallamaláis, 'dry' lands are also largely manured. Lands on which rice, sugar-cane, betel-nut, saffron, *rágí*, tobacco, and chillies are grown, are irrigated from tanks and wells. Poorer lands are left fallow for purposes of pasture, and are charged the usual assessment, except in villages where they have been abandoned by common consent. Rotation of crops is well known in the District. The main canal of the Madras Irrigation Company, intended for the double purpose of irrigation and navigation, runs from Sunkesala to Cuddapah, total length 189 miles; length within the limits of Karnúl District, 142 miles. The nominal width of the canal is 60 yards, and the depth of water 8 feet. The extent of area actually irrigated in 1875-76 was 10,479 acres. In the famine year 1876-77, the extent of land, dry and wet, was 75,620 acres, and the water rate, £19,421. The water rate charged for paddy is 12s. per acre, and less for other crops according to the length of time for which water is taken. The area accessible to the waters of this canal in Karnúl District is estimated at 284,206 acres. The canal is not yet (1878) utilised for navigation.

Natural Calamities.—The villages on the banks of the rivers Tungabhadra and Kistna are occasionally flooded, the most disastrous recent instance being in 1851, when the crops of some villages and the buildings in the lower part of Karnúl town were injured. This inundation was due to a heavy rainfall at the headwaters and within the District. Both Karnúl and the neighbouring District of Bellary suffer from droughts at periodic intervals; and the mass of the population being small landowners, with no reserve capital, the failure of a single monsoon involves general distress. There is no record of the earlier famines; but 1804, 1810, 1824, 1833, 1854, 1866, and 1876 were all years of drought and consequent scarcity. In 1854, the price of *cholam* rose to £19 per 3200 Madras measures, against £9, 10s. in the previous year. In Karnúl, the season of 1866 was not so bad as in Bellary; but owing to exportation, prices rose very high, *cholam* selling at 8½ measures (about 24 lbs.) per rupee, or three times the normal rate. In 1876, both the monsoons failed. The floods of 1874 had seriously injured the tanks and the crops, while the harvest in 1875 was but partial. Prices rose from 18 measures (about 50 lbs.) a rupee in July, the sowing season, to 12 measures or 33 lbs. a rupee in September or October, the period at which the principal crop is generally harvested; and to 6 measures (famine rates) in February and March (1877), when the later crop is usually cut. In July the price was 3 measures, or about 10 lbs., for the rupee (2s.). The roads were fortunately all in good order; much grain was imported both by the Government, as a reserve, and by private merchants, from Gúti (Gooty) and Adoni, the nearest

railway stations. There was no difficulty in procuring carts sufficient to carry into the interior all the grain that the railway could bring from the coast; but this quantity was not equal to the demand, even at famine rates. Relief works were commenced in all parts of the District. The number of persons gratuitously fed in April 1877 was 44,887. Up to the end of July, nearly £600,000 was spent on famine relief in this District alone. Notwithstanding these efforts, the effects of the famine were appalling. The number of deaths recorded from 1st October 1876 to 30th June 1877, was 48,000, as compared with 19,974 in the corresponding period of the previous year; and it is certain that with a system of collecting vital statistics, which even in ordinary years is admittedly defective, these figures fail to represent the excessive mortality of that direful period. All fodder and pasturage having failed, large numbers of cattle were driven to the Nallamaláis for grazing, but the mountain grass was soon exhausted. The poorer *rayats* lost all their cattle, while the rich were scarcely able to save one-quarter of their herds. When at last the south-west monsoon of 1877 broke in November, the few cart-cattle that survived were sent to field-work, and famine labourers drew the grain carts. This, however, did not last long. The rains again failed, and prices rose once more.

Industries.—The chief manufacture in Karnúl is weaving, which gives employment to 13,508 persons, exclusive of women. The weavers conduct the manufacture in their own houses partly on their own account, and partly for traders who advance money. Iron is worked at the foot of the Nallamaláis. Of late years, this industry has greatly diminished, native iron being superseded for agricultural implements by imported iron. Diamond mines have been worked from early times in the quartzite beds of the Yellamalái Hills, which are now rented out by Government for about £20 a year. Quarrying stones is an important industry. Indigo and jaggery or country sugar are also manufactured. Weekly markets are held in most of the towns and important villages. One of the market rules relating to cotton twist, the chief article of sale in these fairs, is worth mention. When a twist is found to contain a less number of threads than the prescribed number, it is broken up by the people and thrown over trees. This summary vindication of commercial morality is sanctioned by custom, and is never appealed against.

Commerce.—There is little or no export of grain. Salt is imported from the eastern coast, but earth salt is largely manufactured. Cotton, indigo, tobacco, and hides, as well as cotton carpets and cotton cloth, are the chief exports. European piece-goods, areca-nut, cocoa-nut, and various dry condiments required for native households, are the chief imports.

Roads.—The number of metalled roads in this District is 34, and their total length is 501 miles.

History.—From local records, it would appear that Karnúl formed part of the old Telingána kingdom of Warangul. On the downfall of that dynasty, Karnúl seems to have become an independent principality. According to Wilson, a prince of Karnúl (Narasinha Ráo, son of Iswara Ráo) was adopted into the family of Vijáyanagar, and afterwards raised to the throne of that mighty kingdom. There can, however, be no doubt that Karnúl formed part of the kingdom of Vijáyanagar. In the reign of Atchala Devá Rájá, the fort of Karnúl was built, and the country was conferred in *jágír* on a relative named Rámrájá. After the battle of Tálikot in 1564, in which the Rájá of Vijáyanagar was defeated by the allied Muhammadan kings of Bijápur, Golconda, and Telingána, Karnúl became a province of Bijápur. The first Subáhdár was an Abyssinian named Abdúl Wahíb, who converted the Hindu temples into mosques, and built a fine dome-shaped tomb in imitation of the one at Bijápur. In 1651, after the conquest of Bijápur by Aurangzeb, Karnúl was conferred by him upon a Pathán named Kizír Khán in reward for military services. Kizír Khán was assassinated by his son Dáúd Khán; and on his death his two brothers, Ibráhim Khán and Alíf Khán, ruled the country jointly for six years, after which they were succeeded by Ibráhim Khán, the son of Alíf Khán, who built and strengthened the fort. The country then peaceably descended to his son and grandson. The grandson, Hímmat Khán Bahádur, accompanied Nazír Jang, the Nizám of Haidarábád (Hyderabad), in his expedition to the Karnatic along with the Nawábs of Cuddapah and Savanúr. Nazír Jang was there treacherously murdered by the Nawáb of Cuddapah, and his nephew was made Subáhdár of the Deccan. But the new Subáhdár failed to satisfy the expectations of the Pathán Nawábs, who had hoped for an extension of their territory. He was murdered at Rachoti in Cuddapah by Hímmat Khán Bahádur, who was himself cut to pieces by the infuriated soldiers. Salábat Jang, a nephew of Nazír Jang, was then made Subáhdár; and on his way back to Haidarábád with Bussy, assaulted Karnúl, and took it in 1752. But he afterwards restored the *jágír* for a sum of money to Munwar Khán, son of Hímmat Khán Bahádur. A short time afterwards, Haidar Alí overran Karnúl, and exacted a contribution of 1 *lákh* of Gadval rupees. His rule lasted for forty years. In 1800, this District, together with Cuddapah and Bellary, was ceded to the British Government. From that time the yearly tribute of 1 *lákh* of Gadval rupees was punctually paid by Alíf Khán to the British Government. In 1815, Alíf Khán died, and his younger son, Muzaffar Jang, usurped the throne and seized the fort. Munwár Khán, the eldest son, applied to the English for assistance; troops were sent from Bellary under Colonel Mariott, Muzaffar Jang was expelled, and Munwár Khán placed on the *masnad.* On his death

without heirs in 1823, his brother Muzaffar should have succeeded; but as he was on his way to Karnúl, within the limits of Bellary District, he murdered his wife, and was imprisoned in the Bellary fort, where he still lives. In 1838, information reached Government that the Nawáb was engaged in treasonable military preparations on an extensive scale. An inquiry showed that enormous quantities of arms and ammunition were stored in the fort and palace, for which no satisfactory explanation could be given. The town and fort were captured after a sharp fight, and the Nawáb escaped to Zorápur, a small village on the east bank of the Hindri. His foreign soldiers would not allow him to depart until their arrears of pay were satisfied. The Nawáb then yielded himself prisoner, and was sent to Trichinopoli, where he was basely murdered by one of his own servants, whom he had charged with a petty theft. His territories, as well as the minor *jágírs* enjoyed by his relatives, were confiscated, and all the members of the family pensioned. After the resumption, the country was for a time administered by a Commissioner, and then by an Agent till 1858. In that year Karnúl was constituted a separate Collectorate, with the addition of certain tracts from Cuddapah and Bellary.

Revenue History.—Under native government the lands were rented by Poligárs, who paid a *peshkash*, and sometimes rendered military service. On the transfer of Cuddapah and Bellary, which then included the present Karnúl District, to the Company in 1800, the Poligárs were summoned by Major (afterwards Sir) Thomas Munro to make their settlements, but many of them refused to attend, and proved troublesome. The lands were therefore resumed, and the Poligárs pensioned. The country was then settled on a quasi-*rayatwárí* system, but the rates were fixed with reference to the high assessment levied under Musalmán government. This system was tried till 1807, when it was superseded by a triennial, and afterwards by a decennial settlement. The assessment was collected through farmers or middlemen, who fell largely into arrears, and several of them were sent to jail. The renting system was thereupon discontinued; and in 1821 the *rayatwárí* system was reverted to, but with a reduction in the rates of 25 per cent. on 'dry' and 'wet,' and 32 per cent. on garden lands. Since then no important changes have occurred, except that lands under wells and tanks constructed at private expense have been exempted from extra assessment, and that old well-land (or garden) rates have been assimilated to 'dry' rates. In Karnúl Proper, the revenue administration under the Nawábs was conducted without system. The old *paláyams* and *zamíndárís* were arbitrarily resumed, and villages were rented to the head-men, who distributed lands among the *rayats* according to their means, and raised or lowered rents at pleasure. In the first four years of British rule in this part of the District, the revenue

decreased by about 1¼ *lákh*. The Agent proposed to revert to village rents, but the Government negatived the proposal. In the next four years, the revenue rose again to its former level. Where the rates were too high, they were reduced, or unassessed lands were given at lower rates to compensate for over-assessment on old lands, and in some cases remissions were also made, and the tax on special products was abolished, but the high rates on garden and ordinary lands were retained. Prices, however, began to rise, and afforded to the *rayats* a more certain relief than any reduction in the assessment could give, and saved the necessity for temporary remissions. The latter were accordingly abolished, and the revenue gradually increased. The remaining inequalities of the old rough settlement were finally removed by the new Survey and Settlement in 1866.

Administration.—The total net revenue of Karnúl District in 1870-71 amounted to £196,468, and the total expenditure on civil administration, £46,998. These figures are inclusive of the *táluks* since transferred. The land revenue in the same year was £135,929; the expenditure under that head being £20,685. The number of estates in 1875-76 was 91,382, paying a total Government revenue of £130,642. The total police force of the District in 1875 was 920 men, maintained at a cost of £13,109; number of arrests in that year, 3612. There are, besides the District jail, 13 subsidiary prisons, with an average daily population of 700 prisoners, costing £898, or about £1, 6s. per head.

Education.—The state of education in Karnúl is backward; only 4 per cent. of the population in 1871 being returned as able to read and write. In 1875, there were altogether 263 schools, with 5781 pupils, of which 151 were Government schools. The total cost of education to Government was £3147.

Medical Aspect.—The climate of Karnúl is on the whole healthy. The prevailing winds are west and north-east, and the mean temperature is about 85° F. The rains begin in June, and continue up to September. The total annual fall is about 35 inches. In the villages along the foot of the Nallamaláis, a severe type of fever prevails, accompanied by enlargement of the spleen. Murrain and 'foot-and-mouth disease' are very prevalent among cattle. There is very little or no pasture land in the plains, and the cattle are generally grazed on the hills; but during the hot months the hill grass is burnt up, and the difficulty of feeding cattle becomes very great.

Karnúl (*Karnaul; Kandanul; Canoul* of Orme).—Town in Ramalkota *táluk*, Karnúl District, Madras. Lat. 15° 49′ 58″ N., long. 78° 5′ 29″ E.; pop. (1871), 25,579; number of houses, 4981. The headquarters of the District, and a municipality, with a judge, magistrate, and the usual District courts. A hot unpleasant town, built on rocky soil at the junction of the Hindri and Tungabhadra

rivers. The fort, attributed to Gopál Ráya, was levelled in 1865, with the exception of one of the gates, which was preserved as a specimen of ancient architecture, and in some measure restored. Until 1871, troops were stationed in the fort, which also contained the palace of the Nawábs; it is still the residence of some of the members of the family. The mausoleum of Abdul Wahâb (the first Nawáb of Karnúl), a modern fountain presented by the Rájá of Vizianágaram, and some mosques, many of which are now converted into pagodas, are the only other architectural features of the place. Karnúl enjoyed at one time an evil fame for fever and cholera. But the municipality, which spends large sums yearly on sanitation, etc., has done much to redeem the reputation of the place. The water supply, although aided by a canal from the Tungabhadra, is still defective. In the famine of 1877-78, Karnúl and the surrounding country suffered terribly, owing to their isolated position. The nearest railway station is Gooty, 80 miles distant; and it was only by extraordinary efforts that food was thrown into the town. The population is half Hindu and half Musalmán; this unusual proportion marking the long rule of the Pathán Nawábs. The present Patháns are a manly, soldierlike race.

Káro, North.—River of Bengal, tributary of the South Koel river; rises in Lohárdagá District, drains the north-west corner of Singbhúm, and finally empties itself into the South Koel.

Káro, South.—Also a tributary of the South Koel; rises in the tributary State of Gángpur, crosses the north-west corner of the Orissa State of Keunjhar, then turns north draining part of Sarandá in Singbhúm, and falls into the Koel at Arandpur.

Karole.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876 was £618; tribute of £70 is payable to the British Government, and £9 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Karond (or *Káláhandi*).—A feudatory chiefship attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 19° 5′ and 20° 30′ N. lat., and between 82° 40′ and 83° 50′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Patna State; on the south and east by Jáipur (Jeypore) estate and Vizagapatam District in Madras; and on the west by Bindra Nawágarh and Khariar. Pop. (1872), 133,483, of whom 72,986 are Hindus, and the rest chiefly Kandhs, residing in 1457 villages and 35,936 houses, on an area of 3745 square miles. The country is high, lying behind the Eastern Gháts, spurs from which project themselves into Karond, while even the plains are dotted with isolated hills. The light alluvial soil washed from their slopes is fertile and easily worked, yielding heavy crops of almost every description. In the south forests of *sarái* and other trees clothe the heights; but in many parts the *dáhya* or nomadic system of tillage has cleared the timber away. The depend-

ency is well watered; within its limits rise the Indravati, a tributary of the Godávari, and the Tel and Hattí, which, after uniting their waters, fall into the Mahánadi. Principal crops—rice, pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and cotton. Of late years, wheat has been introduced. Oranges of fine quality are also grown. Owing to the difficulty of communication between village and village, and the want of periodical markets, but little traffic takes place; and such as exists is mainly carried on by barter. The people are fairly prosperous; and Udit Pratáp Deo, the chief, a Rájput by caste, has acquired a high reputation as a ruler. He accompanied the Chief Commissioner to the imperial assemblage at Delhi, and obtained the title of Rájá Bahádur, with a salute of 9 guns as a personal distinction. The climate of Karond is in general good. The proximity of the Gháts ensures a regular and abundant rainfall. The gross revenue is estimated to amount to £2000; a tribute of £335 is payable to the British Government.

Karor.—Headquarters *táhsil* of Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 312 square miles, of which 237 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 279,436 persons; land revenue, £24,494; total Government revenue, £27,217; rental paid by cultivators, £45,048; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 5⅝d.

Karor.—Municipal town in Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 13′ 30″ N., long. 70° 59′ 15″ E.; pop. (1868), 5720, consisting of 1306 Hindus, 4210 Muhammadans, 72 Síkhs, and 132 others. Situated on the old left bank of the river Indus, at some distance from the present channel. Said to be the earliest settlement in the cis-Indus portion of the District. Festival at the tomb of Lál Isan. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £126, or 10⅞d. per head of population (2766) within municipal limits.

Karra.—Ruined town in Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces; on the right bank of the Ganges, 40 miles north-west of Allahábád. Lat. 25° 41′ N., long. 81° 28′ E. Formerly the capital of a native fief. In 1286 A.D., Muiz-ud-dín and his father, Nasír-ud-dín, held a meeting in the middle of the river, opposite Karra, and determined to unite their forces for an attack upon Delhi. During the 13th and 14th centuries, the town formed the headquarters of the Musalmán governors in the Lower Doáb. Firoz Sháh was murdered here in 1296 by Alá-ud-dín. In 1338, Nizám Má-in attempted to revolt at Karra, but was at once arrested by Aín-ul-Mulk and flayed alive. During the rains of 1346, Karra was occupied by the rebel cobbler of Gujrát, Takhi; but Muhammad Sháh followed him up from Ahmedábád and totally defeated him. In 1376, the fiefs of Karra, Mahoba, and Dalamau were united under one governor, called the Málík-ul-Shark. Akbar removed the seat of government to Allahábád, which thenceforth superseded Karra in importance. (*See* ALLAHABAD DISTRICT.) An

old fort, now in ruins, together with a number of tombs, still attests its former magnificence; but Asaf-ud-daulá, Nawáb of Oudh, destroyed the finest edifices, for the sake of the materials, which he employed in building his own works at Lucknow.

Karrak.—Salt-mine in Kohát District, Punjab; one of the series which extends along the valley of the Teri Toi. Colonized in the time of Aurangzeb, but not quarried till about 1800. The salt occurs as a massive rock, almost pure, and is excavated over a tract 1 mile in length. The produce is exported to Wazíristán and Kábul by the Povindah merchants. Annual average income, £783.

Karsiáng.—Village in Dárjíling District, Bengal; situated in the Lower Himálayas, on the road to Dárjíling, and 20 miles south of that sanatarium. Lat. 26° 52′ 40″ N., long. 88° 19′ 30″ E.

Kartairi.—River of Madras; rising near the station of Utákamand (Ootacamund) in the Nílgiri Hills District. After flowing through the rich coffee-growing tract of Kartairi, at an elevation of about 6000 feet, it descends upon the plains in a series of beautiful waterfalls and cascades at Kullár, and finally falls into the Bhaváni near Mettapolliem, in lat. 11° 18′ N., and long. 76° 57′ E.

Kartak (or *Ketak*).—Petty State in Khandesh.—*See* DANG STATES.

Kartárpur.—Municipal town in Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 26′ 39″ N., long. 75° 32′ 28″ E.; pop. (1868), 10,953, consisting of 6361 Hindus, 3294 Muhammadans, and 1298 Síkhs. Situated on the Grand Trunk Road, 9 miles north of Jalandhar. Hereditary residence of the Síkh Guru, and therefore a place of great interest and sanctity. Founded in 1588 by Guru Arjun, whose father, Guru Rám Dás, obtained the site from the Emperor Jahángír. When Arjun came to the place and desired to build his hut, a demon who inhabited the trunk of a tree would not permit any wood to be cut until the Guru promised that he should not be disturbed, but receive worship for ever at the shrine. Handsome residence and gardens of the Guru, whose annual income from *jágírs* or land-grants amounts to about £1300. Insignificant trade. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £349, or 7¾d. per head of population (10,953) within municipal limits.

Kartinad.—Estate in Malabar District, Madras; situated between 11° 36′ and 11° 48′ N. lat., and between 75° 36′ and 75° 52′ E. long.; stretching from the sea-coast up the western declivity of the Western Gháts. The level tracts near the sea are very fertile, but suffered to such an extent from the devastations of Tipú Sultán, that the people were unable to raise grain sufficient for their support. The eastern hilly parts are well wooded, and contain indigenous cardamom creepers. The petty State was founded in 1564 by a Nair chief, who wrested it from the Rájá of Cherikal, and he and his successors ruled the country until the invasion of Tipú Sultán. On the expulsion

of Tipú in 1792, the Nair Rájá was restored, and his family have held the State ever since. Population, principally Nairs. Chief town, Kuthipuram; lat. 11° 42′ N., long. 75° 44′ E.

Karumattampatti.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras; 16 miles east of Coimbatore town. Lat. 11° 7′ N., long. 77° 4′ 0″ E.; pop. (1871), 3374; number of houses, 906. An early mission station, with a church built in 1660.

Karumattur.—Agricultural town in Madura District, Madras. Lat. 9° 57′ N., long. 79° 59′ E.; pop. (1871), 5775; number of houses, 615.

Kárun.—River of the Central Provinces; rising in Kánker chiefship, in lat. 21° 10′ N., and long. 81° 25′ E. It flows past the town of Ráipur, and falls into the Seo near Simgá, in lat. 21° 34′ N., and long. 81° 44′ E. Though shallow and with a rocky bottom, it is navigable during the rains, and in times of extraordinary floods, stores from Calcutta have been landed by it 3 miles west of Ráipur.

Ka-rúp-pí.—Revenue circle in the Wa-kha-rú township of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. The eastern portion is hilly, and produces valuable timber; the remainder of the country consists of sandy hillocks, and of plains intersected by tidal creeks. Salt is manufactured in the west near the sea-coast. Pop. (1876), 1844; land revenue, £269, and capitation tax, £173.

Ka-rúp-pí.—Large village in the revenue circle of the same name, Amherst District, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 1297.

Karúr (*Caroor* or *Karúrú*, 'Black Town;' Κάρουρα of Ptolemy; Κάρουρα βασίλειον Κηροβόθρου; at different periods called *Vanji* and *Garbhapúri*).—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras; situated on the left bank of the Amrávati river, near its confluence with the Káveri. Lat. 10° 57′ 42″ N., long. 78° 7′ 16″ E.; pop. (1871), 9378, 94 per cent. of whom are Hindus; number of houses, 2357. Headquarters of *táluk* of same name; with post office, railway station, travellers' bungalow, court, etc. Karúr was the capital of the ancient kingdom of Chera or Eastern Kerála (also called *Kongu*). During the struggles between the rival dynasties of Chera, Chola, and Pandya, the town changed hands more than once. With the rise of the Náyaks, Karúr fell to the kingdom of Madura; but it was frequently attacked and occupied by the Mysore armies, until towards the end of the 17th century it was finally annexed to the latter kingdom, and became its most important frontier post. In 1736, Chánda Sáhib besieged it unsuccessfully. In 1760, the town was captured by the English after a short siege, and held by a British garrison till 1768, when it was retaken by Haidar Alí, to whom its possession was confirmed by treaty the following year. In 1783, Colonel Lang held the fort for a few months. It was a third time captured in 1790 by General Meadows, and again restored in 1792. At the close of the second Mysore war, in 1799, which ended

with the death of Tipú Sultán, Karúr was finally ceded to the English, and was abandoned as a military station in 1801. The ruins of this oft-contested fort remain, and, with the old temple, are the principal points of interest in the town. The fort, however, is in some places nearly obliterated. The Jesuit fathers established a mission here as early as 1639. Karúr is now a busy market town, with an excellent road system converging on it. The railway station is an important centre of traffic. The municipality had in 1875 an income of about £1000, the incidence of taxation being about 10½d. per head of the population.

Karwaitnagar.—*Zamíndárí* estate in North Arcot District, Madras; situated between 13° 4′ and 13° 36′ 30″ N. lat., and between 79° 17′ and 79° 53′ E. long.; containing an area of about 640 square miles, 732 villages, and a population (1871) of 252,050 persons. Government land revenue (*peshkash*), £18,000; estimated gross revenue, about £60,000. A very fertile tract, but much neglected of late years. Sub-magistrates are stationed at Puttúr and Tirutáni, the headquarters of the two divisions of the *zamíndárí*.

Karwaitnagar.—Principal town in above estate, North Arcot District, Madras; pop. (1871), 6894; number of houses, 1247.

Kárwár (*Carwar*).—Chief town and municipality of the Subdivision of the same name, and the headquarters station of North Kanara District, Bombay. Lat. 14° 50′ N., long. 74° 14′ E.; 50 miles south-east of Goa, and 295 miles south-east of Bombay. Pop. (1872), 13,263; municipal income, £273. Kárwár was once an important place of commerce. The East India Company had a factory there in the year 1663, from which a contribution was levied in 1665 by Sivají, the founder of the Marhattá power. During the time that it was subject to Haidar Alí and his son Tipú, its trade and prosperity steadily declined. It is the only safe harbour between Bombay and Cochin during all seasons of the year. In the bay is a cluster of islets called the Oyster Rocks, on the largest of which a light-house has been built, 200 feet above the sea, containing a single white fixed dioptric light of the first order, visible 25 miles. There are two smaller islands in the bay (180 and 120 feet above the level of the sea), which afford good shelter to native craft and small vessels during the strong north-west winds that prevail from February to April. The average annual value of the trade at Kárwár port, during the five years ending 1873-74, is returned as follows:—Imports, £244,469, and exports, £310,884. A proposal has been strenuously urged in Bombay to connect Kárwár by a railway with the interior, so as to provide a seaport for the southern cotton districts. But it seems doubtful whether the possible trade would justify the outlay. Courts, post office, civil hospital, etc.

Kárwi (*Kirwee*).—Subdivision of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; situated between 24° 53′ and 25° 19′ N. lat., and between 80° 50′ and 81° 18′ E. long. Comprises the three *tahsíls* of Kárwi, Kamásin, and Mau. This tract contains an area of 1292 square miles, and consists of two distinct portions, the mountains of the south, and the level plain extending from the foot of the hills northward to the Jumna. The latter region is well wooded and widely cultivated. Formerly a separate *munsífi* existed at Kárwi, but the jurisdiction has recently been added to that of the Subordinate Judge's Court at Bánda. The joint magistrate for the Subdivision has his station at the town of KARWI.

Kárwi.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; consisting chiefly of rugged sandstone hills, the outliers of the Vindhyán system, and traversed by the Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) branch of the East Indian Railway, which has two stations within its boundaries, at Mánikpur and Markundi. Area, 466 square miles, of which 352 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 85,323 persons; land revenue, £10,805; total Government revenue, £11,047; rental paid by cultivators, £16,407; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 8¾d.

Kárwi.—Town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the Subdivision and *tahsíl*. Lat. 25° 12′ 10″ N., long. 80° 56′ 50″ E.; situated on the river Páisuni; distant from Bánda 42 miles south-east, from Allahábád 48 miles west. Pop. (1872), 4025, chiefly Hindus. In 1805, the town formed a cantonment for British troops; and in 1829, it became the principal residence of the Peshwá's representative, who lived in almost regal state, and built several beautiful temples and wells. Numerous traders from the Deccan were thus attracted to Kárwi. During the Mutiny, Náráyan Ráo, after the murder at Bánda of Mr. Cockerell, Joint Magistrate of Kárwi, assumed the government, and retained his independence for eight months amid the subsequent anarchy. The accumulations of his family constituted the great treasure afterwards so famous as 'the Kirwee and Bánda Prize Money.' It was kept in a vault of the Bára, a large building, forming the palace of Náráyan Ráo's family. The greater part of their possessions were afterwards confiscated for rebellion, and the Bára now serves as a *tahsíli*, police station, and school-house. Balwant Ráo, the present head of the family, still retains a considerable estate, though small by comparison with that of his predecessors. Since the Mutiny, the prosperity of Kárwi has gradually declined. Station of a Joint Magistrate and an assistant District superintendent of police. The jurisdiction of the *munsífi* has been removed to Bánda. Magnificent temple and tank, with masonry well attached, known as the Ganesh Bágh, and built by Benáik Ráo in 1837. Five mosques, and as many Hindu temples. Government dispensary, post office. Trade unimportant.

Kasái (*Cossye*).—River of Bengal; rises in the north-west of Mánbhúm District, in lat. 23° 28′ 30″ N., and long. 85° 58′ 15″ E. It flows a very winding south-easterly and easterly course, through Mánbhúm and Midnapur, till it falls into the Haldí in the latter District, about 20 miles above the confluence of that river with the Húglí. During the rainy season, the Kasái is navigable by boats of 2 tons burden from its mouth to some distance above the town of Midnapur, which is situated on its north or left bank; but in the dry weather it is nowhere navigable by large boats, except for a few miles above its confluence with the Haldí. A considerable floating trade in timber, chiefly *sál*, is carried on during the rainy season, from the south of Mánbhúm into Midnapur. Its only tributary is the united stream of the Kumárí and Tetká, which under the former name joins the Kasái at Ambikanagar in Mánbhúm.

Kásálang.—Tributary of the Karnaphulí river, rising in the extreme north of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal. It flows southwards, receiving two small tributaries on its course, one on either bank, and falls into the Karnaphulí at KASALANG village, in lat. 22° 44′ N., long. 92° 19′ E. Navigable by boats for about three days' journey from its mouth.

Kásálang.—Village in the District of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal; situated at the confluence of the Kásálang river with the Karnaphulí. Lat. 22° 44′ N., long. 92° 19′ 30″ E. One of the principal marts for the sale of hill produce. An annual fair is held here which is attended by the local officers, for the purpose of keeping up friendly intercourse between the independent chiefs and the people within the District. A *darbar* or reception is yearly held on this occasion by the District officer, at which gifts are distributed to the Kukís and other visitors.

Kásáraghat.—Pass over the range of the Western Gháts, Kolába District, Bombay.—*See* THALGHAT.

Kásáragodu. — Town, South Kanara District, Madras. — *See* CASSERGODE.

Kasauli (*Kussowlee*). — Cantonment and convalescent dépôt in Simla District, Punjab; situated on the crest of a hill, overlooking the Kálka valley; distant from Umballa (Ambála) 45 miles north, from Simla 32 miles south-west. Lat. 30° 53′ 13″ N., long. 77° 0′ 52″ E. The cantonment was formed in 1844-45, on land acquired from the Native State of Bíja, and barracks were erected in the same year. Since that date, detachments of European troops have continuously occupied the station, and many private visitors also arrive during the summer months. The Kasauli Hill, a summit of the Subáthu group, has an elevation of 6322 feet above sea level, and commands magnificent views over the plains to the south-west, and towards the snowy range of the Himálayas on the north. Though healthy under ordinary

circumstances, the proximity to the plains renders Kasauli liable to epidemics. Outbreaks of cholera occurred in 1845, 1857, 1867, and 1872. Defective water supply. Permanent station of an Assistant Commissioner; headquarters of the Commissioner of Umballa during the summer months. Court-houses, branch treasury, lock-up, staging bungalow, two hotels. Trade confined to the supply of necessaries and European commodities for the troops and summer visitors.

Kásbá (or *Jessor*).—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Jessor District, Bengal.—*See* JESSOR.

Kásbá.—Large trading village in Bardwán District, Bengal; situated on the Damodár river, which is here crossed by a ferry on the road to Sonámukhí. Lat. 23° 21′ N., long. 87° 33′ 30″ E.

Kásbá.—Town in Purniah District, Bengal; situated on the road from Purniah to Arariyá, about 9 miles from the civil station, and 4 from the old town of Purniah. Lat. 25° 51′ 0″ N., long. 87° 34′ 41″ E.; pop. (1872), 6288, inhabiting 1479 houses. Kásbá forms the largest centre of the rice trade in Purniah District. It is chiefly inhabited by Sunrís, who collect unhusked rice from the northern tracts of Purniah and the submontane *morang* in Dárjíling, for export to Calcutta. Large vernacular school, with 150 pupils. Police outpost station.

Kásganj.—Northern *tahsíl* of Etah District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the Ganges and the Káli Nadi, and traversed by two main branches of the Lower Ganges Canal. Area, 490 square miles, of which 363 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 241,335 persons; land revenue, £27,427; total Government revenue, £30,050; rental paid by cultivators, £57,325; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 9d.

Kásganj.—Municipal town and chief commercial centre of Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 48′ 5″ N., long. 78° 41′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 15,764, consisting of 11,409 Hindus and 4355 Muhammadans. Situated on a raised site, 1¼ mile north-west of the Káli Nadi; distant from Etah town, 19 miles north. Well-built, prosperous town, with handsome shops, and drained and metalled streets. The eastern quarter, inhabited by the poorer Hindus, is less well kept. A fine mosque, remarkable for its curious roof and numerous minarets, adorns the Muhammadan quarter. The town owes its origin to Khán Bahádur Khán, the founder of Alíganj, under the Oudh Wazírs. His successors sold it to Col. James Gardner, from whom it passed finally into the hands of his agent, Dílsukh Rái, now Rájá and honorary magistrate. The public buildings include a municipal hall, dispensary, police station, *tahsíli*, good school, and *munsífi*. Brisk and increasing trade in cotton, sugar, *ghí*, indigo seed, and country produce. Rising population; large business in grain and saccharine goods. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1608; from taxes, £1121, or 1s. 5d. per head of population (15,764) within municipal limits.

Kashmír and **Jamu** (*Cashmere* and *Jummoo*).—Native State in political connection with the Punjab Government, constituting the territories of the Mahárájá of Kashmír; extending from 32° 17′ to 36° 58′ N. lat., and from 73° 26′ to 80° 30′ E. long. Estimated area, 79,784 square miles, with a population returned in 1873 at 1,534,972 persons. The State is bounded on the north by some petty semi-independent hill chiefships, mostly subordinate to Kashmír, and by the Karakoram Mountains; on the east by Chinese Thibet; on the south and west by the Punjab Districts and the Házara country. The State comprises, in addition to the Districts of Kashmír Proper, Jamu, and Punch; the Governorships of Ladákh and Gilghit, including the Districts of Dardistán, Baltistán, Leh, Tilail, Suru, Zauskar, Rúpshu, and others. The Provinces of Kashmír and Jamu form the more important part of the State in a general view, and are here chiefly dwelt upon.

History.—Muhammadanism was introduced into Kashmír in the 14th century A.D., during the reign of Shams-ud-dín. In 1586, the country was conquered by Akbar, and became an integral part of the Mughal Empire. In 1752, it was subjugated by the Afghán Ahmad Sháh, the founder of the Durání dynasty; and it remained under Afghán sway until 1819, when it was conquered by the Síkhs. From that time it was ruled by a governor appointed by the Mahárájá of the Punjab until the Síkh war in 1845. Ghúláb Sinh, who had begun life as a horseman under the Mahárájá Ranjít Sinh, but by distinguished conduct had raised himself to independent command, was presented with the principality of Jamu, whence, nominally on behalf of the Lahore State, he soon extended his authority over his Rájput neighbours, and eventually into Ladákh. In the revolution which preceded the outbreak of the Sutlej war, he was elected Minister of the Khálsá, and he took an important part in the negotiations which followed the battle of Sobráon. The results were, that he was enabled to secure his power by a separate treaty with the English at Amritsar in March 1846, by which, on payment of 75 *lákhs* of rupees, or £750,000, he was confirmed in possession of the State which he had held as feudatory of the Síkhs. By this treaty he bound himself to acknowledge the supremacy of the British Government, to refer all disputes with neighbouring States to its arbitration, and to assist British troops when required. The Mahárájá sent a contingent of troops and artillery to co-operate with the British forces against Delhi during the Mutiny of 1857. Ghúláb Sinh died in August 1857, and was succeeded by his eldest son, the present Mahárájá Ranbhír Sinh, G.C.S.I., who is by caste a Dogra Rájput, and was born about 1832. The Mahárájá of Kashmír is entitled to a personal salute of 21 guns, and has received a *sanad* giving adoptive rights. He pays an annual tribute to the British Government of 1 horse, 12 shawl goats, and 3 pairs of shawls. The military force of the State consists of about

19,000 men, including 5000 irregular troops, with 16 batteries of artillery, two of which are horsed; the cavalry, which is used principally as His Highness' escort, mostly stationed near Jamu, consists of 2 regiments. The Mahárájá was recently presented by the British Government with a mountain battery of artillery, and on the occasion of the Delhi Darbár in January 1877, he was gazetted a general in the British Army, and created a Counsellor of the Empress.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of the valley of Kashmír is that of a basin, encircled on every side by lofty mountains. In the middle is an extensive level alluvial tract intersected by the JHELUM (Jhílam) and its numerous tributaries, which flow down from the mountains and find their way by the sole channel of the Jhelum through the Baramúla Pass to the plains of the Punjab. The elevation of this valley is about 5200 feet above the sea.

Besides the low alluvial tract extending along the banks of the Jhelum, which forms the greater part of the arable soil of the valley, there occur extensive tablelands or plateaux of slight elevation, stretching from the mountains at various distances into the plains. These plateaux are known as *karewas* or *wudars*. Their soil for the most part is a loam or loamy clay, containing remains of fresh-water fishes and molluscs, which indicate their lacustrine or fluvial origin. They are divided from each other by ravines of from 100 to 300 feet in depth. Occasionally they are entirely surrounded by lower ground, but more generally they connect with some of the mountains that bound the valley. Over the surface of the *karewas*, water has sometimes been brought for irrigation, and then a fertile tract is the result; but more commonly the cultivation depends on rain alone, and in that case the yield is precarious. The slopes of the hills between the flat ground and the limit of forest are a mixture of cultivation, good grazing grounds, and forests of cedars, pines, firs, etc. The lowest of the beds forming the *karewas* have been considered to be of the same geological age as the topmost Siwáliks, while the higher beds are of more modern origin. The portion of the valley unoccupied by the *karewas* is covered with a more modern alluvium, often containing objects of human workmanship.

Mountains.—The lofty mountains which surround Kashmír include in some places large glaciers between their spurs, and are covered with snow for nearly eight months in the year. The highest ascertained peaks in the Pansál range are Múlí, 14,952 feet, and Ahertatopa, 13,042 feet; and in the north of Kashmír, Haramúk, 16,015 feet. Captain Montgomerie, R.E., in his account of the Survey, states: 'On the Pír Panjál peaks, the electricity was so troublesome, even when there was no storm, that it was found necessary to carry a portable lightning conductor for the protection of the theodolite.' Beyond

the limits of Kashmír, the isolated peak of Nanga Parvat, or Dayarmur —in lat. 35° 14′ 21″ N. and long. 74° 37′ 52″ E., 26,629 feet above the sea—forms a noble object. The range enclosing the Kashmír valley bears different names in different parts—the snowy Pansál on the east, the Fateh Pansál and Pansál of Banihal on the south, the Pír Panjál on the west, the Drawar Mountains on the north, and Haramúk and Sonamarg Mountains on the north-east. The soft and beautiful scenery of the valley is on the southern side, where the mountains slope gently. On the north the country is wild and sublime, the mountains rising in rugged precipices of stupendous height, down the bare sides of which the numerous streams leap in prolonged cataracts. The beauties of the Kashmír valley have been so often celebrated in prose and verse, that further allusion to them here would be out of place. Moore, Vígne, Jacquemont, and flocks of annual visitors to Srínagar have rendered its scenery as well known as the most picturesque spots of Switzerland or Scotland. The general direction of the Pír Panjál range is from north-west to south-east. The highest part is of basaltic formation, consisting of upheaved amygdaloidal trap, transition rocks appearing on its borders. Quartz, slate, and other primary formations are observable on the northern side.

The principal passes from the mountains into the Kashmír valley are the following:—

Situation.	Name.	Elevation in Feet.	From what Place.
North . . .	Rájdiangau	11,800	Gurais, Skardo
South . . .	Marbal	11,570	Kistawár, Chamba
,, . . .	Banihál	9,200	Jamu, Siálkot
,, . . .	Pír Panjál	11,400	Bhimbar, Rájáori, Gujrát
East	Margan	11,600	Maru, Wardwán, Súrú
,, ...	Zoji-la	11,300	Dras, Ladákh
West	Toshá Maidan	?	Punch, Jhelum
,, ...	Firozpur	12,560	...
,, ...	Baramúla	...	Murree, Abbottábád, Púnch
,, ...	Nattishannar	10,200 ?	Karnas, Muzaffarábád, Abbottábád

The *margs* or mountain downs, which are numerous on the tops of the range of hills immediately below the Pír Panjál, and also upon the northern slopes of those mountains which enclose the north-eastern side of the valley, are a peculiar feature of the country. They are covered with rich grass, and afford pasturage during the summer months to large herds of ponies, cattle, sheep, and goats.

Rivers.—The principal river of Kashmír is the JHELUM, which nearly intersects the valley. Formed by the junction of three streams—the Arpat, the Bring, and the Sandaram—which rise at the

south-east end of the valley, it receives in its course numerous tributaries. Among those which join it on the right bank are the Liddar from the north-east, near Islámábád, the Sind from the east, opposite Shádipur, and the Pohrú, which flows into it near Sopúr. On its left bank it is joined by the combined waters of the Veshan and Rembiára near Murháma, by the Ramchúat Karkárpur and the Dudh Ganga at Srínagar.

The Kishen Ganga, or river of Krishna, which has its sources on the edges of the Deosái plain and in the Tiláil valley, is also a considerable stream. It flows in a north-north-westerly direction till near Shardi, when it turns to the south-west and joins the Jhelum just below the town of Muzaffarábád. The Maru Wardwán river, which drains the valley of the same name, flows southward, joining the Chenáb above Kistawár. The latter river traverses Kistawár and Badrawár, flowing into the plains some miles to the west of Jamu. Of these rivers the Jhelum alone is navigable, from the neighbourhood of Islámábád to Barámúla, a distance of about 60 miles.

The Jhelum is spanned by 13 bridges in its course through the valley of Kashmír. These bridges, which are of peculiar construction, are called *kadals*. They are all made of *deodar* wood, and are constructed in the following manner:—A space either triangular with the apex down stream, or more commonly hexagonal, having a triangular apex at each end, facing up as well as down stream, is formed in the bed of the river by strong stakes, which are well driven down and covered with planks on the outside to a height of about 8 feet. This space is then filled with heavy stones, to form the foundation of a pier. Each pier consists of alternate layers of *deodar* trunks, which are placed about a foot apart, every succeeding layer being broader than the previous one, and laid at right angles to it. The trunks are fastened together at their ends by strong wooden pegs. The piers are united by long and very stout *deodar* trunks, which stretch across from one to the other, and are laid about 2 feet apart. The platform consists of rough planks or slender poles, which are closely laid across the trunks that connect the piers, and are fastened at each end by wooden pegs. In some cases there is a coating of grass and earth over the platform, and a railing on each side. Smaller bridges of a single span are usually constructed in the following manner:—On either side of the stream abutments of rubble masonry, laced with cross-beams of timber, are built up, and into these are inserted stout poles, one over the other in successively projecting tiers, the interstices between the latter being filled up with cross-beams. The projecting poles increase in size as they approach the upper platform, and have a slight incline upwards, their shore ends being firmly braced into the stone work. Between the uppermost row of timbers, two or three long and very strong con-

necting trees are placed, and scantlings laid over them for the pathway; sometimes a railing is added for greater security. Such bridges are frequently of considerable span, and, if well built, last from thirty to forty years. Next in importance come the rope suspension bridges, which are often of great length; of these there are two descriptions, called respectively *chika* and *jhola*. The *chika* bridge consists simply of six or eight stout ropes close together, stretched between rude piers on either bank of the torrent. On them a ring of timber, formed of a section of a tree about 2 feet long and 1 foot in diameter, slides, being hauled backwards and forwards by a rope attached to it, and connected with the suspension ropes at intervals of about 20 feet by stout cane rings. To the slide a loop of ropes is secured, through which the legs of the traveller are inserted, and he clasps his hands in front of him round the ropes to retain himself in a sitting position. It looks dangerous, but is in practice a perfectly safe, though tedious, operation. Baggage is carried across in the same manner, each package being lashed to the loop and hauled across separately; and in like manner sheep and goats, and sometimes cows, are conveyed across rivers and torrents. A *jhola* bridge is formed of a stout rope of five or six distinct strands, stretched between piers and securely fastened on either side of the river. This forms the footway; and about 3 feet above it on either side is a guy-rope, which is grasped by the passenger to enable him to retain his footing on the bridge. The guy-ropes are kept in their places by being attached at intervals to the ends of forked branches like the merry-thought of a chicken. Some of these bridges swing a good deal with the weight of the traveller, and are trying to the nerves of those unaccustomed to them. The ropes of which they are constructed are made either of hemp, or willow, or birch twigs, and are renewed annually, or as often as occasion may require.

The body of Srínagar is intersected with a labyrinth of canals. To avoid the necessity of crossing the dangerous Wulár Lake, through which flows the main stream of the Jhelum, a navigable canal was constructed in early times to connect Sopur with Srínagar. Irrigation canals are very numerous; of these the Sháhkúl Canal in Khaurpára district, and the Naindi and Ninnar Canals near Islámábád, are the most important.

The lakes of Kashmír are numerous, both in the valley itself, and upon the mountains surrounding it. In the valley the principal lakes are:—The Dál or 'city lake,' which is situated north-east of Srínagar, and is connected with the Jhelum by a canal called the Tsont-i-kúl, or 'apple-tree canal,' which enters it opposite the palace. The Anchar is situated to the north of Srínagar; it is connected with the Dal by means of the Nálli Már, which flows into the Sind river near Shádipur. The

Manásbál, said to be the most beautiful lake in Kashmír, is situated near the right bank of the Jhelum, and is 1½ mile long, ¾ of a mile wide, and very deep. The Wulár is the largest of all the Kashmír lakes. Its extreme breadth from north to south is 1½ mile, exclusive of the marshes on the south side; extreme breadth, 10 miles; circumference, nearly 30 miles; average depth, 12 feet; deepest part, about 16 feet. The Jhelum flows into the Wulár on its east side near the middle of the lake, leaving it at its south-west corner in a fine open stream about 200 yards wide. Like every other lake surrounded by mountains, the Wulár is liable to the action of sudden and furious hurricanes that sweep over its surface. The chief mountain lakes are—the Konsa Nág, situated on the top of the Pír Panjál range; the Shísha Nág, situated above the head of the Liddar villey; the Gangábál Nág and Sarbal Nág, situated on the top of Haramúk, which overlooks the north-eastern shore of the Wulár.

Minerals.—Iron abounds, but Vigne states that the ore of Kashmír is not considered good; and Moorcroft remarks that, though iron is found in considerable quantities, the metal used in the fabrication of gun-barrels requires to be imported from the Punjab. Near the village of Harpatnar, at the northern extremity of the Kutihár district, a copper mine is said to have been worked within late years. Plumbago abounds in the Pír Panjál Mountains, and it has lately been found of inferior quality on the east side of the Maru Wardwán valley. Sulphur springs are common, but the mineral has nowhere been found in a solid state. Sulphide of lead (*surma*) is found in the Jamu Hills, and samples of coal from the same locality have been exhibited in the Lahore Exhibition. The rocks in the immediate vicinity of Daudela are thin carbonaceous shales and grits with earthy ferruginous limestones; among them is a seam of coal or anthracite, varying in thickness from 1 inch to nearly 2 feet, undulating in chambers or bunches more than in a continuous seam. The general character of the coal is that of a hard anthracite. During the progress of the Kashmír Survey, Captain Montgomerie, R.E., found gold dust in the bed of the Shigar or Shingo river, a tributary of the Dras, but the quantity to be obtained was very small. Gold-washing is also carried on to a very trifling extent on the banks of the Jhelum, in the neighbourhood of Tangrot.

Sulphurous springs burst forth in many parts of the valley of Kashmír, and earthquakes are of not uncommon occurrence. In June 1828, the city of Srínagar was shaken by an earthquake which destroyed about 1200 houses and 1000 persons. For more than two months afterwards, lesser shocks were daily experienced. Abu Fazl, in describing the country about two centuries previously, mentions the frequent occurrence of earthquakes at that period. Some years

ago at Sogam, near the north-western extremity of the valley, the ground became so hot that sand is said to have been fused.

Feræ Naturæ.—Bears are found in all parts of Kashmír State, and, although far less numerous than formerly, are still very common. Though formidable animals, they do not usually molest man unless previously attacked. Of the brown or red species, which is between six and seven feet long, there are two varieties, viz. the *Ursus isabellinus*, inhabiting the lower ranges, and the *Ursus arctus*, found higher up the mountains. The black bear (*Ursus tibetanus*), though smaller than the brown, is far more dangerous, and is usually found lower down. Both species are chiefly herbivorous, but also partly carnivorous. Leopards are found all round the Kashmír valley, but they chiefly infest the grazing grounds, where they sometimes commit great havoc amongst the cattle. The ounce, snow or white leopard, has been seen in Tiláil. The *barásinha*, or large stag, is found throughout the Pansál range generally, except where it slopes towards the plains. It is not, however, usually met with until the middle of September, though occasionally seen in the middle of August with fully developed horns. Both Hindus and Muhammadans eat the flesh of the stag. The *gural*, or Himálayan chamois, is found on the Pansál range, and in Kistawár. The ibex is found in the northern parts of Kashmír. It is stated to be larger than the European ibex; the horns, too, are longer, more curved, and more tapering. The *khakar*, or barking deer, is usually found only upon the southern and western slopes of the Pansál range. The *markhor*, or serpent-eater, is a species of gigantic goat; it is migratory, and is found all over the Pír Panjál beyond the Barámúla Pass, and upon the mountains between the Jhelum and Kishen Ganga rivers. The musk deer is found in birch woods in all parts of Kashmír at a certain elevation. The *sarrau* or *buz-i-kohi* (mountain goat) and the *thar* (another species of mountain goat) are found upon the Pansál range. Wolves are numerous on the mountains of Kashmír, and often do great injury to the flocks of sheep. They are not often seen in the valley. Monkeys are common in the lower portion of the Kishen Ganga valley. Foxes and jackals are numerous; the former is not the little grey species of Hindustán, but large and full brushed, like an English fox. A species of marmot, called *drúm* or *pua*, is found amid the rocks at high elevation; it is as large as a fox, of a dull yellowish colour, with tawny belly, the head, back, and tail being marked with a darker stripe, distinguishable at a considerable distance. It is stated that this animal is frequently a prey to the eagle; it emits a shrill cry on the approach of danger. The otter is frequently met with in the rivers, and its skin is highly prized. The porcupine is found in Kistawár. There are few reptiles in Kashmír; venomous serpents are

rare, though the cobra has been seen. Birds of prey are numerous, and there are several varieties of eagles and vultures, and also of falcons and hawks. Many kinds of game birds are found. The black, *chikor*, grey, and snow species of partridge are met with in many parts. Of pheasants, the varieties found are the argus, *múnál*, *kallich*, *koklas*, and the snow. The common kind of quail, the jack-snipe, and the woodcock are met with. Waterfowl of every species abound during the winter months. They come from Yarkand and Central Asia, in order to avoid the cold of the more northern regions, and depart as soon as spring commences. Bald-coots, moor-hens, dab-chicks, terns, and grebes are constantly to be found in the autumn and winter. Herons are common. The *sarus*, or gigantic crane, is often seen in the marshes, and a small kind of pelican. The *búlbúl*, or nightingale of Kashmír, is a distinct species, greatly inferior in note to the genuine nightingale of Europe. The cuckoo, the *máina*, and the hoopoe are common. The parrot is not indigenous to the valley, but the golden oriole is frequently met with. Flies, sandflies, and mosquitoes are numerous and troublesome, especially in August and September.

The population of the dominions of the Mahárájá of Kashmír and Jamu was estimated in 1875 at about 1,600,000 persons. This estimate is doubtless founded on the Census made in 1873, the details of which are given in Appendix VII. of *Drew's Kashmír*. The total population is there given as 1,534,972, excluding ladies of rank (*pardanashin*), who live in close retirement. The total population of the Jamu District is put at 861,075; of Kashmír Proper, at 491,846; of Ladákh, Skardu, and Gilghit, at 104,485; of Punch, at 77,566. Of the total, the number of Hindus was 506,699; of Muhammadans, 918,536; of sundry castes, 89,483; and of Buddhists, 20,254. The great majority of the Muhammadans belong to the Sunní sect. The respectable Hindu castes are the Bráhmans and the Karkúns; the latter form the most numerous class, and are employed as writers, merchants, and farmers, but never as soldiers. An estrangement exists between Kashmíri Pandits who have been domiciled in British India, and their brethren in Kashmír. It is not long since that a service similar to that for the dead was performed over such Kashmíri Pandits as were about to emigrate, as their relatives looked upon them as dead thenceforward. The way was so long and difficult, and the means of correspondence so uncertain, that they never expected to receive tidings of the absentees, much less to welcome them back into the home circle. In time, the wanderers fell away from the customs of their house, and embraced those of the people amongst whom they had settled. Thus it has come to pass, that whilst Kashmíri Pandits domiciled in India have accepted the severe ritual of the Indian Bráhmans in matters of food and drink; their brethren in Kashmír, whom they characterise as intolerant and ignorant,

do not object to meat, will take water from a Muhammadan, eat with their clothes on, and have no repugnance to cooking and taking their meals on board a boat.

The inhabitants of Kashmír are physically a fine race. The men are tall, strong, and well built; their complexion is usually olive, but sometimes fair and ruddy, especially among Hindus; their features are regular and well developed, and those of the Muhammadans have a decided Jewish cast, resembling the Patháns. The houses throughout the valley are nearly all built after the same pattern. First there is a ground floor, in which are two chambers, with the small hall of the house. The second floor contains three rooms; and the floor under the roof usually consists of one long chamber, which is used as a loft for storing firewood, kitchen stuff, and lumber. In this last the household spend the summer months. Polygamy does not appear to be very common among the Hindus in Kashmír; and with the Muhammadans the practice is confined to the wealthier classes, who are generally found in the towns. Few of the agricultural population have the means to indulge in a plurality of wives. Kashmírís, rich and poor, are passionately fond of tea, of which two kinds find their way into the market, called *surati* and *sabzi*. The *surati* is like English tea, and reaches Kashmír from the Punjab; the *sabzi* is the famous brick-tea, which finds its way into the country through Ladákh. The Russian tea-urn, or 'samovar,' is a common article of household furniture in Kashmír; the shape is said to have been imitated from a Russian model brought by some travelling merchant years ago from the north.

The chief towns of Kashmir are JAMU (Jummoo), the capital, on the river Távi, an affluent of the Chenáb, in the extreme south of the territory; SRINAGAR, the Mahárájá's summer residence, and the seat of the shawl and silk manufacture, situated on the Jhelum to the west of Kashmír; and LEH, the entrepôt of the trade between Yarkand and India; situated near the right bank of the Indus, towards the north-east of the Mahárájá's dominions.

The languages of Kashmír are divided into thirteen separate dialects. Of these, Dogri and Chibali, which do not differ much from Hindustání and Punjabi, are spoken on the hills and country of the Punch and Jamu Districts. Kashmíri is mostly used in Kashmír proper, and is rather curiously and closely related to the Sanskrit. It is not, however, the Court language, and for the purposes of a traveller through Kashmír either Hindustáni or Punjabi will serve. Five dialects are included under the term 'Pahári,' a language spoken by the mountaineers in the east of Kashmír. Besides these, there are two dialects of Thibetan, which are spoken in Bultistán, Ladákh, and Champas; and in the north-west three or four varieties of the Dard dialects of Aryan origin.

The flora of Kashmír bears a strong affinity to that of Europe. Of trees, the *deodar* or Himálayan cedar (Cedrus deodara) merits first notice. Its botanical range extends from 7000 to 12,000 feet above the sea; in its most congenial locality it reaches a height of from 100 to 200 feet, and has a girth ranging from 20 to 40 feet. The *deodar* forests are very extensive, and of great value. The forests of Kashmír contain, among other trees, the *yar* (Pinus longifolia), the most widespread species of pine. There are also two other species of pine, including the *chil* (Pinus excelsa), and one of fir. The common yew (Taxus baccata) abounds. The elm is frequently met with, and there is said to be a forest of sandal-wood in the Kutihár district. The cypress is common in gardens; and a species of plane-tree (Platanus orientalis), considered an exotic, is probably nowhere found more abundant or luxuriant than in Kashmír. Poplars, lime-trees, and a species of wild chestnut-tree attain great size and luxuriance. Two kinds of willow grow in the valley, and the maple and red and white hawthorn (Cratagus oxyacantha) are common. The birch and the alder are found at great heights. Junipers and rhododendrons grow on the mountains at a height of 11,000 feet, and roses, both wild and cultivated, bloom in vast profusion. Flowers are very numerous. The crocus is cultivated for the production of saffron, which is used as a condiment and as a medicine. About 1600 lbs. of saffron are said to be yearly exported to Ladákh. The fruit-trees of Kashmír are the apple, pear, quince, peach, apricot, plum, almond, pomegranate, mulberry, walnut, hazel-nut, and melon. The strawberry, raspberry, and currant grow wild. There are said to be at least six varieties of grape, but the manufacture of wine is ill conducted. Neither orange, lemon, nor any other species of Citrus arrives at maturity in Kashmír, as the intense cold of winter proves fatal to them. There is great variety and abundance of excellent vegetables. Hügel enumerates fifteen different sorts not known in Europe. The potato, cauliflower, carrot, rhubarb, and, in short, garden vegetables generally, may be grown of the finest description, and in any quantity. The floating gardens of Kashmír are so peculiar as to deserve some notice. They are common on the city lake, where they yield abundant crops of fine cucumbers and melons. To form these islands, choice is made of a shallow part of the lake overgrown with reeds and other aquatic plants, which are cut off about 2 feet below the surface, and then pressed close to each other without otherwise disturbing the position in which they grow. They are subsequently mowed down nearly to the surface, and the parts thus taken off are spread evenly over the floats, and covered with a thin layer of mud drawn up from the bottom. On the level thus formed are arranged close to each other conical heaps of weeds, about 2 feet across and 2 feet high, having each at top

a small hollow filled with fresh mud. In each hollow are set three plants of cucumber or melon, and no further care is required but to gather the produce, which is invariably fine and abundant. Each bed is kept in its place by a willow stake driven into the bottom of the lake. A most valuable product of uncultivated vegetation is the *singhára* (Trapa bispinosa), or horned water-nut. It grows on the bottom of the Wulár Lake in such profusion, that 60,000 tons are, it is said, raised every year, constituting almost the sole food of at least 30,000 persons for five months in the year. It ripens in the month of October. The nut is dried, and then formed into a flour or meal, of which cakes are made.

Agriculture.—In Kashmír, as in Upper India, two harvests are reaped annually. The first, or *rabí*, ripens about July; the second, or *kharíf*, about two and a half months later. The chief *rabí* crops are wheat, barley, peas, etc.; those of the *kharíf* are rice, Indian corn, gram, and flax. During the last two years (1878-79) the harvests have almost entirely failed. Famine has again raged throughout Kashmír, notwithstanding the efforts of the Rájá to relieve the starving multitudes.

Manufactures.—The chief manufacture of Kashmír consists of shawls, which are celebrated throughout the world. These are of two kinds—those which are loom-made, and those woven by hand. The wool of which the shawls are manufactured is from the goats pastured upon the elevated regions of Changthan, Turfan, etc. It is also obtained from the yak and the shepherds' dog. The shawl-weavers are Muhammadans, and are the most miserable portion of the population, both physically and morally. Crowded together in small and badly ventilated workshops, earning a mere pittance, and insufficiently nourished, they suffer from chest affections, rheumatism, and scrofula. Of the Kashmír shawls imported into Europe, France used to monopolize about 80 per cent. On the breaking out of the war between France and Germany in 1870, the shawl trade suffered a sudden collapse, which has continued till the present day, owing, it is said, to a change of fashion in Europe. Attempts are now being made to divert labour into other channels, such as the manufacture of carpets, to which trade the peculiar dexterity of the Kashmír weavers is well adapted. Great attention is also paid to the cultivation of the vine for wine-making, and in parts of the Mahárájá's territory to tea. The manufacture of woollen cloths is almost universal throughout the valley, and gives employment to the villagers throughout the long winter months. The better quality of wool is used in the manufacture of blankets, and the fine woollen cloth called *pashminá;* of the inferior wool, coarse woollens called *pattú* are made. Silk has of late years received considerable attention, and bids fair to become one of the most important products of the Mahárájá's dominions. The paper produced in Kashmír has a great reputation throughout Hindustán. A description of papier-maché or

lacquered work is peculiar to Kashmír. The designs are by no means always on papier-maché, being frequently done on articles of smooth wood. They consist of a delicate pattern in colours, chiefly crimson, green, and blue, drawn with a fine brush; flowers and the curved forms seen upon shawls are most commonly produced. The lapidaries of Kashmír are stated to have produced specimens of their skill and taste superior to any in Europe. The silver and gold work, of which a great deal is made in Srínagar, is exceedingly effective; and the smiths, with the rudest tools, consisting of a hammer and a few tiny chisels and punches, contrive to copy with admirable fidelity numerous designs both Oriental and European. Kashmír was long famous for the manufacture of gun and pistol barrels and sword-blades, but the trade has greatly declined of late years.

Commerce and Trade.—The principal commercial intercourse is with the Punjab, Ladákh, and Afghánistán. The main routes by which the merchandise of Kashmír enters India are from Srínagar, by the Banihál Pass to Jamu and Amritsar, by the Pír Panjál and Bhimbar to Gujrát, also by Akhnúr and the Búdil Pass; and lastly, from Srínagar to Pesháwar, by Barámúla, Muzaffarábád, and Manserat. The great mart in the Punjab for the trade of Kashmír is Amritsar. Goods to a considerable amount pass through Kashmír from British India for the markets of Central Asia. In 1871, an annual fair was established at Jamu, which commences on the 20th November; prizes are awarded by the Mahárájá, and during the continuance of the fair the custom duties are reduced to half the ordinary rates. The value of the trade with British territory in 1874 was estimated at £890,000; but, in addition, there is a trade between British India and Yarkand, passing through Kashmír, valued at £60,000 a year. The total trade of Leh, which is the centre of this through traffic, has risen in value from about £5000 in 1864 to about £80,000 in 1876. In 1870, a treaty was concluded with the Mahárájá, by which he agreed to abolish all transit duties on goods passing between the countries of Eastern Turkistán and British India; while the British Government agreed to abolish the export dues on shawls and other textile fabrics, and to levy no duty on goods transmitted in bond through British India to Central Asia, or the territories of His Highness the Mahárájá. The Mahárájá also undertook to facilitate the survey of the trade routes between his territory and Yarkand, and consented to the appointment of Joint Commissioners (one to be nominated by the British Government) for the settlement of disputes between carriers, traders, or others using that road, in which either of the parties, or both of them, should be subjects of the British Government or of any foreign State. An officer of the British Government is stationed at Leh for the entire year, and another resides at Srínagar for eight months.

The climate of Kashmír varies according to the situation. Upon the summits of the surrounding mountains it is extremely rigorous, while in the valley it is temperate, being intermediate between that of Europe and the plains of India. The seasons in the valley are all well marked, and occur about the same time as in England. In the higher portions of the valley, the climate from the beginning of May to the end of October is mild and very salubrious, and almost as invigorating to the European constitution as that of England. In consequence of the great elevation of Kashmír, the cold of winter is considerable, being on an average much more severe than in any part of the British Isles, and this in a latitude lower than that of Sicily. The hottest months in the valley are July and August; the air is occasionally close and oppressive, especially for a day or two before rain, which is often accompanied with thunder and lightning. The coldest months are December and January, when the average morning temperature in the valley is a little below freezing point; ice invariably covers the surface of the lakes to a considerable distance from the banks, and about once in seven or eight years the Jhelum itself is frozen over at Srínagar. Schlagintweit gives the following as the monthly mean temperature at Srínagar in 1856:—January 40° F., February 45°, March 50°, April 56°, May 60°, June 70°, July 73°, August 71°, September 63°, October 57°, November 54°, December 42° F. There are no periodical rains as in Hindustán; and although the annual fall upon the mountains must be very great, yet in the valley the quantity probably does not exceed 18 or 20 inches during the year. About the end of March and beginning of April, there are frequent and sudden storms in the valley, accompanied by hail and rain; spring showers are frequent during April and May. In June and September also, heavy rain is not infrequent, and there are occasional showers in July and August. The air of Kashmír is in general remarkable for its stillness. Night frosts set in as early as the middle of November. By the end of that month the trees are stripped of their leaves and the year's vegetation is killed off, a thick haze overspreads the whole valley, and the lakes and rivers send up clouds of vapour. Every movement of men or beasts raises great quantities of dust, and the haze becomes so great that even at mid-day, and under a cloudless sky, no object can be seen at a mile's distance. This murky state of the air extends for about 200 feet above the level of the valley; and those who climb beyond that height see the snowy mountains of a dazzling whiteness, and the sun shining clearly in a cloudless sky, while the low country lies hidden in dim obscurity. The first fall of snow restores the clearness of the air. This fall upon the mountains usually occurs about the beginning of November, but it is slight, and soon melted by the sun. The heavy

fall begins about the middle of December, and the snow lies to the average depth of 2 feet until the middle of April.

Medical Aspects.—Malaria is very prevalent throughout the valley, and fevers and affections of the bowels are common, but the other diseases peculiar to India are seldom observed. Epidemics of small-pox and cholera are not infrequent. In many villages the inhabitants suffer from goitre. In addition to the above diseases, phthisis, elephantiasis, syphilis, and scrofula are common.

Administration—Law and Justice.—His Highness the Mahárájá of Kashmír forms himself the ultimate Court of Appeal throughout his dominions, his decisions alone being final. The rule obtains that every suit must be instituted in the Court of First Instance, *i.e.* in the lowest competent to try the issue, though for the ends of justice it is not very strictly observed. In cases involving the Hindu and Muhammadan laws, the authorities are the *shástra* and the *shára* respectively; but the majority of the text-books of the five schools of Hindu law have no force in Kashmír. After mature deliberation, the Mahárájá has caused a criminal code to be prepared, consisting of 203 sections, with punishments for each offence, differing in spirit very little from the Indian Penal Code. Political offenders and criminals under life sentences are banished to the frontier fort of Bhúnji, but the bulk of ordinary prisoners are lodged in the jail near the village of Habbak, on the margin of the Dál Lake. Education has lately been encouraged by an annual grant of £3000, to defray the cost of publishing translations of books, teaching the European sciences, and also standard works in Sanskrit and Arabic. Dispensaries for the European and Unani system of medicine have likewise been established.

The revenue of Kashmír State was estimated in 1876 at Rs. 8,075,782, or £807,578. The whole of the land in the State is considered to have been, time out of mind, the property of the ruler. During the rule of the earlier Hindu Rájás, *i.e.* till about the beginning of the 14th century A.D., one-sixth of the produce was paid to the State. The Musalmán Sultáns, who succeeded, continued at first to collect at the same rate. But they, and afterwards the Mughal Emperors of Delhi, began gradually to make enhancements, which reached their climax under the regime of the Duránis, by whose time half the produce in the case of rice, the staple of the Province, had come to be regarded as the rightful share of the ruler; and even to this, additions were generally made. The first Síkh Governor continued to levy the land revenue at the previously existing heavy rates. Some of the extra cesses were, however, reduced by his successor, General Mián Sinh, about 1833. Great frauds having been discovered in the superintendence of the crops while growing, a rough assessment was made in the following way. The grain, as it was cut, was tied up into little sheaves which a man

could grasp with his two hands, the fingers meeting. It was the business of the village *shakdár*, or watcher of the crops, to see that all the grain cut was so stored; and the village *patwárí*, the accountant, then had to number the sheaves in the different heaps. This being done, respectable men, specially chosen for the purpose by the *kardár* or governor, came round and took out of the heaps certain average sheaves, which were threshed out in their presence, the produce weighed, and the total out-turn of grain in the village thus estimated. By means of the data so acquired, the total amount of grain due to the State from the circle of villages under each *kardár* was estimated, and for that amount the *kardár* was held responsible. This was the system uniformly adopted in the case of the rice crop; with other crops the process varied slightly. If there was a general outcry against a particular *kardár*, or if a neighbouring *kardár* offered to pay more for that particular circle of villages, he was turned out, and the one that offered more put in his place. This system continued in force till the year 1860, when the valley of Kashmír was divided into *chaklás*, each containing several *kardár*ships, and the collection of revenue in each *chaklá* was farmed to the *chakládár*. In fixing the amounts of grain and money to be paid by the farmer, the average amount collected during the previous five years was taken as the basis, and some remissions were made in the case of heavily taxed villages. The amount was fixed for three years, the farmer being left to share with the *zamíndár* the profits from extension of cultivation. In 1864-65, the crops failed extensively, and in consequence the farming system broke down; and next year the former system of division was resorted to. In 1867, the farming system was tried again, and leases fixed for a period of five years; but latterly it has been again abandoned, and the plan of taking the State share in kind is at present in practice. There is, however, no settled system throughout the country.

Kashmor.—*Táluk* or Subdivision of the Upper Sind Frontier District, Sind; situated between lat. 28° 6′ 45″ and 28° 48′ N., and between long. 69° 8′ 30″ and 69° 52′ E. Area, 782 square miles; 15 villages; pop. (1872), 25,232; revenue (1873-74), £6655, of which £6405 was derived from imperial and £250 from local sources.

Kashmor.—Chief town of above *táluk*, Upper Sind Frontier District, Sind; situated 2 miles from the Indus river, and 86 miles north-north-east from Jacobábád. Lat. 28° 26′ N., long. 69° 36′ E.; pop. (1872), 956, consisting of 569 Musalmáns (mostly of the Kalwár tribe), and 387 Hindus (chiefly Lohános). Very liable to floods, which have destroyed the town five times within 80 years. Considerable trade in grain. Manufactures, principally coarse cotton cloth, shoes, leather work, and lacquered work. Station of a *mukhtiyárkár*, subordinate jail, Government English school.

Káshpur.—Village in the north of Cáchár District, Assam, among the southern spurs of the Baráil range. The residence of the Cáchári Rájás during the greater part of the 18th century, when Hindu influence first became powerful at their court.

Kasia.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces; remarkable as being the place where Buddha died, and containing many interesting remains, especially a colossal statue of Buddha. The ruins stand at the north-west corner of the Rámabhar Lake, and include a lofty mound of solid brickwork, known as Devisthán, and an oblong mound with a brick *stupa*. Government charitable dispensary; station of a joint magistrate.

Kasiári.—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 7′ 25″ N., long. 87° 16′ 20″ E. Large trading village; also noted for its silk cultivation and manufacture.

Kásíjorá.—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 17′ 20″ N., long. 87° 22′ 45″ E. Inhabited by colonies of matmakers, who make the finer qualities of mats, which are largely exported to Calcutta as flooring mats for the houses of European residents.

Kásimbázár (*Cossimbázár*).—Decayed town in Murshidábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 7′ 40″ N., long. 88° 19′ E. This town, the site of which is now a swamp marked by a few ruins, may lay claim to a historical interest even superior to that of the city of Murshidábád. Long before the days of Murshid Kulí Khán, who founded and gave his name to the latter city, the trade of Bengal was centred at Kásimbázár. The different European nations who traded to India had factories here from very early times. The common name for the Bhágirathi in English history down to the early years of the present century was the Kásimbázár river; and the triangular tract enclosed by the Bhágirathi, Ganges, and Jalangi was known in the early days of the Company as the island of Kásimbázár. The place is said to derive its name from a legendary founder, Kásim Khán. Its history cannot be traced back beyond the 17th century; but even when first mentioned it appears as a place of great consequence. After Sátgáon had been ruined by the silting up of the Saraswatí mouth, and before Calcutta was founded, Kásimbázár was the great emporium. An English commercial agent was first appointed to Kásimbázár in 1658; and nine years later it was decided that the 'Chief' at this place should be also a member of Council. In 1686, the factory at Kásimbázár, in common with the other English factories in Bengal, was confiscated by order of the Nawáb Shaistá Khán. It was restored a year or two later, and at the close of the century had become the leading English commercial agency in Bengal. In 1681, when Job Charnock, the future founder of Calcutta, was Chief here, of £230,000 sent out by the East India Company as the 'investment' to Bengal, £140,000 was

assigned to Kásimbázár. In 1763, it appears that out of a total of £400,000 required as 'advances for investment,' the Kásimbázár *aurangs* demanded £90,000, or as much as any other two agencies, excepting Calcutta. The filatures and machinery of the Company were estimated to be worth 20 *lákhs* of rupees, or £200,000. According to native tradition, the town was so studded with lofty buildings, that the streets never saw the rays of the sun. The factory of Kásimbázár owed much of its wealth, and all its political importance, to its close neighbourhood to the Muhammadan capital at Murshidábád. But, from the same cause, it was liable to constant danger. It was a matter of common occurrence for the Nawáb to order out his troops to blockade the walled factory, whenever he had any quarrel with the English Council at Calcutta. In 1757, when the Nawáb Siráj-ud-daulá resolved to drive the English out of Bengal, Kásimbázár felt the first effects of his anger. The fortified factory was taken without resistance, and the Englishmen, including Mr. Watts, the Resident, and Warren Hastings, his assistant, were sent in close custody to Murshidábád. After the battle of Plassey, Kásimbázár regained its commercial importance; but the political power formerly held by the Resident was transferred to the English Agent at the court of the Nawáb, who lived at Murshidábád. The decay of Kásimbázár dates from the beginning of the present century, when its climate, which had previously been celebrated for salubrity, underwent an unexplained change for the worse, so that the margin of cultivation receded and wild beasts increased. In 1811, Kásimbázár town is described as noted for its silk, hosiery, *korás*, and inimitable ivory work, while the surrounding country was 'a wilderness inhabited only by beasts of prey.' In 1813, the ruin of the town was effected by a change in the course of the Bhágirathi, which suddenly deserted its ancient bed, and instead of following its former bend to the east, took a sweep to the west, and now flows 3 miles from the site of the old town. The channel in front of the warehouses of Kásimbázár became a pestiferous marsh, a malarious fever broke out, and the place gradually became depopulated. The Company's filatures, however, continued to work, although the place had lost all its ancient importance, and weaving only ceased when it became impossible to compete with the cheaper cotton goods of Manchester. In 1829, a Census returned the population of Kásimbázár at 3538. It is still the seat of the wealthiest Hindu family, represented by a noble and charitable lady, the Ráni Swarnamayi, but otherwise it is quite deserted. Ruins of huge buildings and broad mounds of earth alone remain to attest its former grandeur. The chief traces of European occupation now remaining are mouldering tombstones.

Kásimkota.—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras; 30 miles west of Vizagapatam. Lat. 17° 39′ 50″ N., long. 83° 0′ 10″ E.; pop.

(1871), 6128; number of houses, 1898. The principal town of a 'modern proprietary estate,' and formerly a *tahsíli* station; contains a good school. Kásimkota was, in Musalmán days, a *faujdári* of the Chicacole Circar; and after the Northern Circars came into British hands, in 1768, remained the headquarters of a division. When, in 1802, the Chicacole Circar was transferred to Ganjám, Kásimkota remained attached to Vizagapatam. It was here that Colonel Forde's troops made their rendezvous with those of Vizianágaram, previous to the battle of Condore and the taking of Masulipatam in 1758-59.

Kásipur.—Western *tahsíl* of the Tarái District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a damp submontane tract, chiefly covered with forest jungle or grassy savannahs, but containing a larger proportion of cultivation than the remainder of the District. Area, 186 square miles, of which 85 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 71,412 persons; land revenue, £10,440; total Government revenue, £10,566; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 9d.

Kásipur.—Municipal town and principal centre of population in the Tarái District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*; situated in a marshy plain, overgrown with grass and jungle; distant from Moradábád 31 miles. Lat. 29° 13′ N., long. 78° 59′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 13,113. Formerly the site of an ancient Aryan city, several large excavations in the neighbourhood being attributed to the Pándava tutor, Drona, one of the heroes of the *Mahábhárata*. These ruins have been identified by General Cunningham with the capital of the Govisana kingdom, visited in the 7th century A.D. by Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim. At the close of the last century, Nandrám, governor of Kásipur, made himself independent; and his nephew, Síb Sál, was in possession of the *parganá* at the date of the British annexation in 1802. The present Rájá of Kásipur, Shiuráj Sinh, holds rank as a special magistrate. Famous place of Hindu pilgrimage, having several temples and a holy tank, where pilgrims bathe on their way to Badrináth. Well-built, handsome houses of the chief merchants. Brisk transit trade from Kumáun and Chinese Tartary to the plains. Exports of grain; manufacture of coarse cotton cloth. Government charitable dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £903; from taxes, £625, or 11¼d. per head of population (13,221) within municipal limits.

Kásipur.—Village, and site of Government factory, a northern suburb of Calcutta.—*See* COSSIPUR.

Kasla Paginú Muwádu.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 1¼ square mile. There are 4 chiefs. Estimated revenue in 1875, £12; tribute of £6 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Kasmandi Kalán.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated 4 miles east of Malihábád town, and 1 mile west of the Gumti river.

Noted as having been the seat of the Hindu Rájá Kans, who was overthrown by Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, the leader of the first Muhammadan invasion into Oudh, 1030-31 A.D. Rájá Kans was slain in the battle, and there are numerous ruined tombs marking the burial-place of the chiefs who fell. A small mound of fallen bricks is pointed out as the *ran-khamba* or battle pillar. The present Musalmán proprietor of the place claims direct descent from the settlers left behind by Sayyid Sálár. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 1172; Musalmáns, 818; total, 1990. The birthplace and residence of several Muhammadans distinguished for learning and wealth. Government school, with a branch girls' school; post office; small market.

Kassargod.—Town in South Kanara District, Madras.—*See* CASSERGODE.

Kassia.—Town of Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KASIA.

Kasta.—*Parganá* of Muhamdi *tahsíl*, Kheri District, Oudh. The north and west of the *parganá* comprises a considerable area of dense jungle, which is let out rent-free under 5 forest grants. This tract harbours herds of deer and other animals, which do much damage to the crops of the cultivators who have settled in the vicinity for the sake of grazing. The south of the *parganá* is highly cultivated by Kurmís. Total area, 95 square miles (including 13 miles of forest); cultivated area, 39 square miles. Government land revenue, £3785. Of the 73 villages comprising the *parganá*, 62 are held by *tálukdárs*, 4 by independent proprietors, 2 are Government villages, and 5 are held rent-free by forest grantees. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 29,556; Musalmáns, 1733; total, 31,289, viz. 17,241 males and 14,048 females; average density of population, 329 per square mile. Kastá village is a small place of 219 houses, and a population (1869) of 1165 persons, on the road from Lakhimpur to Mitauli; of no importance, and much decayed of late years.

Kasúr.—*Tahsíl* of Lahore District, Punjab, occupying the southern half of the eastern or Bári Doáb portion of the District; situated between 30° 54′ 30″ and 31° 27′ N. lat., and between 74° 15′ and 75° 0′ 30″ E. long. Area, 835 square miles; pop. (1868), 197,667, or 236·7 persons per square mile.

Kasúr.—Municipal town in Lahore District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl*; situated upon the north bank of the old bed of the Beas (Biás), upon the Firozpur (Ferozepore) road, 34 miles south-east of Lahore. Lat. 31° 6′ 46″ N., long. 74° 30′ 31″ E.; pop. (1868), 15,209, consisting of 3844 Hindus, 10,557 Muhammadans, 474 Síkhs, and 334 'others.' Tradition refers its origin to Kush, son of Ráma, and brother of Loh or Lav, the founder of Lahore. Certainly, a Rájput city seems to have occupied the modern site before the earliest Muhammadan

invasion; but Kasúr does not appear in history until late in the Musalmán period, when it was settled by a Patán colony to the east of the Indus. These immigrants entered the town in the reign of Bábar or of Akbar, and founded a considerable principality, with territory on either side of the Sutlej (Satlaj). When the Síkhs rose to power they experienced great opposition from the Patháns of Kasúr; and though the chiefs of the Bhangi Confederacy stormed the town in 1763, and again in 1770, and succeeded for a while in holding the entire principality, the Pathán leaders re-established their independence in 1794, and resisted many subsequent invasions. In 1807, however, Kutab-ud-dín Khán, their last chieftain, was forced to give way before Ranjít Sinh, and retired to his property at Mamdot, beyond the Sutlej. The town of Kasúr was then incorporated with the Lahore monarchy. It consists of an aggregation of fortified hamlets, standing on the upland bank, and overlooking the alluvial valleys of the Beas and the Sutlej. The Afghán element has now declined. Centre of a local trade in country produce. Manufacture of leather, especially harness. Station of an Assistant Commissioner, court-house, *tahsílí*, police station, school-house, dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1218, or 1s. 5⅜d. per head of population (16,795) within municipal limits.

Katahra (or *Katera*).—Town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces; situated 30 miles from Jhánsi town, and 15 from Mhow (Mau). Pop. (1872), 4437. Station of the Great Trigonometrical Survey. Local manufacture of pottery.

Katak.—District, Subdivision, and city, Orissa.—*See* CUTTACK.

Kátákhál ('*New Cut*').—Offshoot of the Dhaleswari river, in the south of Cáchár District, Assam; said to have been formed by one of the Cáchári Rájás, who constructed an embankment across the main channel of the Dhansiri, about 25 miles above its junction with the Barák. The Kátákhál now carries off the greater part of the stream, and is navigable by boats of 20 tons burthen all the year through.

Kátál.—A peculiar jungly tract of country, occupying the entire north-east of Maldah District, Bengal. This tract extends north-east and south-east from Maldah town to the borders of Dinájpur. It contains no large forests, but consists of a continuous waste of jungly swamp, covered with a thorny tree jungle called *kátál* (whence the tract takes its name), broken by narrow steep water-courses or *nálás*, and very thinly inhabited. The country shows traces of having been at one time occupied by a considerable population. Many tanks are to be seen, some of them of grand proportions, and scattered over a wide area. The ruins of the magnificent Muhammadan city of PANDUAH or Peruah are situated in the wildest and most dangerous portion of this jungle. In former times there were probably many

villages on these high lands; but at the present day there are merely a few miserable huts, inhabited by aboriginal or semi-aboriginal tribes, who mainly subsist by hunting or fishing, and raise a few crops by the rudest mode of tillage.

Katalgarh.—Town in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; on the road from Pithoragarh to Champáwat, 4 miles north of the latter place. Lat. 29° 24′ N., long. 80° 5′ E. An old fort, garrisoned by Gurkhá troops during the war in 1814.

Katambo.—Town in Ulwur (Alwar) State, Rájputána; 60 miles west of Agra, and 95 south of Delhi. Lat. 27° 20′ N., long. 77° 3′ E. Thornton describes it as a small town and fort, bombarded and laid in ruins by the Marhattá troops on the 29th October 1803, in their retreat before Lord Lake's army. The British reached Katambo two days afterwards, but found it had been abandoned that morning. The pursuit was continued, the Marhattás were overtaken the next day, and totally defeated at LASWARI.

Katangi.—The southern *tahsíl* or revenue Subdivision of Seoni District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 120,754, residing in 294 townships or villages and 22,627 houses, on an area of 839 square miles.

Katangi.—Small chiefship in Biláspur District, Central Provinces; containing 38 villages, on an area of 57 square miles, of which about 11,000 acres are cultivated, and about 15,000 acres are cultivable waste. The tract consists of an open plain of average soil, hemmed in on one side by the Mahánadi river, and on the other by the Sonákhán Hills. Pop. (1870), 9407. The chief is a Gond; and Katangi village, where he resides, contains a small but flourishing community of traders and weavers, and has a weekly market. Lat. 21° 46′ 30″ N., long. 79° 51′ E.

Katangi.—A State forest, chiefly of teak, in Betul District, Central Provinces; covering about 170 square miles, and stretching from Katangá village on the Tápti to the river Ganjál.

Katangi.—A large but decaying village in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces; situated at the foot of the Bhánrer Hills, on the north bank of the Hiran, 22 miles north-west of Jabalpur, on the road to Ságar (Saugor). Lat. 23° 26′ 30″ N., long. 79° 50′ E.; pop. (1870), about 3000, mostly agricultural, and among them many Muhammadans, said to be descended from the soldiers of Akbar and Aurangzeb, both of whom encamped near the town. Katangi used to be famous for the manufacture of gun-barrels, which were largely exported. It contains a large tank and the remains of some mosques, and has a Government school.

Katás.—Holy fountain in Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab, and, after Kuru-kshetra and Jawála Mukhi, the most frequented place of pilgrimage in the Province. Lat. 32° 43′ 30″ N., long. 72° 59′ 30″ E. Siva being

inconsolably grieved for the loss of his wife Sáti, the daughter of Daksha, 'rained tears from his eyes,' and so produced the two sacred pools of Pushkára, near Ajmere, and Katáksha or Katás, in the Sind Ságar Doáb. The pool is partly artificial, being formed by the enlargement of a natural basin in the bed of the Ganiya Nála. Just above it stretches a strong masonry wall which once dammed up the stream, so as to enclose a large lake; but the water now escapes through the interstices and broken masses of the embankment. Katás lies on the north side of the Salt Range, 16 miles from Pind Dádan Khán, and 18 from Chakowál; elevation above sea level, over 2000 feet. Walls, towers, and brick ruins crown the surrounding heights, while a fort once stood upon the neighbouring hillock of Kotera. Below these remains, an enclosure contains the ruined *Sát Ghára* or seven temples, with another group, which General Cunningham ascertained to be twelve in number. The latter resemble in their general style the Kashmír order of architecture, characterised by dentils, trefoil arches, fluted pillars, and pointed roofs. Though the details cannot now be accurately discriminated, enough remains to prove with considerable certainty that the buildings belong to the Karkota and Varmma periods, from 625 to 939 A.D., during which epoch the Salt Range formed part of the Kashmír dominions. Popular tradition assigns the origin of the seven temples to the Pándava brethren. They have suffered much from restoration and repairs, the whole wall of the central shrine being now hidden by a thick coat of plaster, the gift of Ghuláb Sinh. General Cunningham inclines to believe that Katás may be identified with the capital of the Sinhapur kingdom, visited in the 7th century A.D. by Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim. Some of the existing remains may possibly date back to the Buddhist period.

Ka-ta-wa.—Revenue circle in the Mro-houng township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma; situated on the Kú-la-dan river. Pop. (1876), 2020; gross revenue, £989.

Katera.—Town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KATAHRA.

Kathi.—One of the Mewás States in Khandesh, Bombay. The population in 1872 was estimated at 5000. The chief is a Hindu Bhíl, claiming Rájput origin, named Kathi Walad Umed Parni. Estimated revenue in 1872, £1100; tribute of £13 is paid to the British Government.

Káthiáwár (or *Suráshtra*).—The peninsula or portion of Guzerat between the parallels of 20° 41′ and 23° 8′ N. lat., and the meridians of 68° 56′ and 72° 20′ E. long. On the south and west it is bounded by the Indian Ocean; on the north by the Gulf and Runn of Kutch; on the east by the Ahmedábád Collectorate and the Gulf of Cambay. It was known to the Greeks and Romans under the name of Σαυραστρήνη;

the Muhammadans called it by the Prakritised name of Soráth, and to this day a large district in the south-west, 100 miles in length, still retains that name. Another tract, quite as large, to the east of the centre, however, has long been known as Káthiáwár, from having been overrun by the Kathis, who entered the peninsula from Cutch, in the 13th and 14th centuries; in the 15th, the whole tribe was driven out of Cutch, and in that and in the following century conquered a considerable territory. The Marhattás, who came into contact with them in their forays, and were sometimes successfully repelled by them, extended the name of Káthiáwár to the whole Province, and from them we have come to apply it in a similar wide sense; but by Bráhmans and the natives generally it is still spoken of as Suráshtra. The extreme length of the peninsula is about 220 miles, its greatest breadth about 165 miles, its area about 22,000 square miles, and its estimated population 2,500,000. It is divided into 188 separate States, large and small, of which 13 pay no tribute, 96 are tributary to the British Government, 70 to that of the Gáekwár as the representative of the Marhattás, while of the latter three classes 132 pay a tax called *Zortalabi* to the Nawáb of Junágarh. The States are arranged into seven classes, with varying civil and criminal powers. This classification was introduced in pursuance of reforms suggested by Mr. Kinloch Forbes, Acting Political Agent, who had drawn attention in 1860 to the need of reform in the relations of the British Government with the administration of the Chiefs. A re-organization of the administrative system was accordingly introduced in 1863, on the recommendation of Colonel Keatinge. Chiefs of the first and second class exercise plenary jurisdiction, both civil and criminal; the judicial powers of the lesser chiefs are graded in a diminishing scale, the residuary jurisdiction being vested in four British officers, each superintending a group of States. The Political Agent controls the whole. As a rule, no appeal lies from the decision of a chief; but on presumption of mal-administration, his proceedings may be called for and reviewed. Káthiáwár is divided for administrative purposes into four *prants* or districts,—Jhaláwár, Hállár, Soráth, and Gohelwár,—but the old territorial *prants* are ten, viz. Jhaláwár, in the north, containing about 50 States; Machhukántá, west of Jhaláwár; Hállár, in the north-west, embracing 26 States; Okhamandal, in the extreme west, belonging to Baroda; Barada or Jaitwár, along the south-west coast, also known as Porbandar; Soráth, in the south; Babriáwár, a hilly tract in the south-east; Káthiáwár, a large District near the middle; Und-Sarviya, lying along the Satrúnji river; and Gohelwár, in the east, along the shore of the Gulf of Cambay, so named from the Gohel Rájputs, who are the ruling race in it. It comprises the Gogha District, belonging to the Ahmedábád Collectorate; Bhaunagar, probably the foremost State in Káthiáwár; and many others.

Generally speaking, the surface of the country is undulating, with low ranges of hills running in very irregular directions; with the exception of the Tánghá and Mándhav Hills, in the west of Jhaláwár, and some unimportant hills in Hallár, the northern portion of the country is flat; but in the south, from near Gogha, the Gir range runs nearly parallel with the coast, and at a distance of about 20 miles from it, along the north of Babriáwár and Soráth, to the neighbourhood of Gírnár. Opposite this latter mountain is the solitary Osam Hill, and then still farther west is the Baradá group, between Hállár and Baradá, running about 20 miles north and south from Gumti to Ránáwan. The Gírnár clump of mountains is an important granitic mass, the highest peak of which rises to 3500 feet in height. The principal river is the Bhádar, which rises in the Mándhav Hills, and, flowing south-west, falls into the sea at Navi-Bandar, in Baradá, after a course of about 115 miles, everywhere marked by highly cultivated lands adjoining its course. From the same hills rises another Bhádar, flowing eastward into the Gulf of Cambay. Other rivers are the Aji, Machhu, and Satrúnji, the latter remarkable for wild and romantic scenery. Four of the old races, the Jáitwas, Churásamas, Solunkis, and Wálás, are now existing as proprietors of the soil who exercised sovereignty in the country prior to the immigration of the Jhalás, Járejas, Purmars, Kathis, Gohels, Játs, Muhammadans, and Marhattás, between whom the country is now chiefly portioned out. As each of the important States in Káthiáwár is treated in a separate article, a very brief notice must here suffice for the Province as a whole.

At a very early period, Suráshtra was doubtless brought under the influence of Bráhmanical civilisation, and, from its position on the coast, it was most accessible to influences from the west. The edicts of Asoka (265-229 B.C.) were inscribed by that monarch on a huge granite boulder between Junágarh and Gírnár. The Saraostos of Strabo is not improbably identical with Suráshtra; and if so, the peninsula was included in the conquests of the Indo-Scythian kings (*circa* 190 and 144 B.C.). Its shores were well known to the Alexandrian merchants of the 1st and 2d centuries, but there is considerable difficulty in identifying the places mentioned.

Of the early history of the country we have but scanty notice. It was probably governed by Satraps under Asoka and the great Maurya kings. For about three centuries, ranging from the 1st century B.C. to the 3rd A.D., the local dynasty of the Sáh kings ruled in Suráshtra. After the Sahs come the Guptas of Kanauj, who apparently governed by *senapatis* or viceroys. The later *senapatis* became kings of Suráshtra, who placed their lieutenants at Valabhi-nagar (identified with the buried city of Wala, 18 miles north-west of Bhaunagar). When the Guptas were dethroned by foreign invaders, the Valabhi kings extended their

sway over Cutch, Lat-desa (Surat, Broach, Kheda, and parts of Baroda territory), and Málwá (480 A.D.). It was in the reign of Dhruvasena II. (632-640) that the Chinese pilgrim Hiouen Thsang visited Falapi (Valabhi?) and Sulach'a (Suráshtra), the inhabitants of which, he says, are indifferent and not given to learning, but profit by the proximity of the sea, and engage much in trade and barter.

How Valabhi fell is not known, but possibly it was subverted by Muhammadan invaders from Sind. The seat of government was then moved farther north, beyond the borders of Káthiáwár, and remained at Anhilwára from 746 to 1297 A.D., during which time various petty kingdoms arose, and the Jáitwas became a powerful tribe in the west of Suráshtra. Anhilwara was sacked by the Muhammadans in 1194, and finally conquered in 1297. The Jhalas are said to have been settled in Northern Káthiáwár by the Anhilwára kings. The Gohels (now in Eastern Káthiáwár) came from the north in the 13th century, retreating before the tide of Muhammadan conquest, and conquering for themselves new seats in the decadence of Anhilwára. The Járejas and the Kathis came into Káthiáwár from the west through Cutch. The sack of Somnáth by Mahmúd of Ghazní in 1024, and the capture of Anhilwára in 1194, were the prelude to occasional Muhammadan invasions of Káthiáwár. In 1394, Zafar Khán destroyed the temple of Somnáth. He was the father of the first of the Muhammadan kings of Guzerat, who reigned in prosperity from 1403 to 1535, and in decadence to 1573, when Guzerat was conquered by Akbar. The Ahmedábád kings subjected the tributary chiefs of Káthiáwár; they carefully fostered commerce, and developed the ports of Mangrol, Verávwal, Diu, Gogo, and Cambay. About 1528, the coast was threatened by the Portuguese. Bahádur, defeated by Humáyun, sought safety in Diu, and afterwards admitted the Portuguese adventurers to build a factory, which they turned into a fort, and treacherously killed Bahádur (1536). The island and fort are still a Portuguese possession. Guzerat, after its conquest by Akbar, 1573, was ruled by Viceroys from the Court of Delhi, until the Marhattás supplanted the imperial power. In 1705, the Marhattás entered Guzerat, and by 1760 had firmly established their rule; but the following half-century was a time of little ease for the tributaries in Káthiáwár, and petty wars were frequent. In 1803, some of the weaker *tálukdárs* applied to the British Resident at Baroda for protection, offering to cede their territory to the Company. They were then independent of the Peshwá and Gáekwár, with the exception of their being bound to furnish contributions. In 1807, the forces of the Company and the Gáekwár advanced into Káthiáwár, and the chiefs entered into engagements to pay a fixed tribute, and to keep the peace towards each other, and maintain order within their own limits. In return, they were secured from the visitations of the *Mulk-giri* force, a

predatory horde which used to be let loose at harvest-time, and which in default of payment used to ravage the crops and fire the villages. In 1817, the Peshwá ceded to the British Government his share of the Káthiáwár tribute; and in 1820, the Gáekwár agreed to have his share collected and paid by the British Government. Since 1822, the sole supreme power has been vested in the Political Agent, subordinate to the Government of Bombay. In 1831, a chief criminal court was established, with a British officer as president, to try criminals whom the local authorities themselves could not deal with.

In 1863, the reforms devised by Colonel Keatinge, and mentioned above, were worked out, since which time the progress of the Province has been rapid. During the past twenty years, the States have established civil and criminal courts and written codes. Justice is administered by the political officers on the non-regulation system, in an area of 2058 square miles, comprising all the petty *tálukas*, and amounting to about one-tenth of the whole area. Outlawry, political and predatory, has been recently suppressed, and life and property are as safe as in British Districts. In the past few years a village police has been established, and municipal funds are yearly voted by the States for education, vaccination, roads, and other public purposes. Education has made wonderful strides of late years. In 1858, there were 29 schools and 1909 students, which in 1878 had grown to 488 schools and 28,171 scholars; while at the Rájkumar College, and 3 high schools, the advantages of a liberal education are enjoyed by many of the chiefs during their minority. The railway runs now to Wadhwán, and an extension is in progress to Dhoráji and Bhaunagar, while a network of good roads extends from Rájkot, the headquarters of the Agency, over the greater part of the Province.

The Province is a wealthy one. The land, though not of extraordinary richness, is generally of fair quality and amply watered. The cotton annually exported, supplies one-sixth of the total amount of cotton shipped from Bombay to foreign countries, and a large import of bullion or corn is yearly received by Káthiáwár as part of the price. The tribute, in all about 10 *lákhs*, is but 4 per cent. on the value of the exports. The numerous petty courts and their people form a large body of rich resident landlords, spending their rents on their estates; and the ministers, officials, and landholders, of various station and wealth, contribute to impart a brisk vitality to the progress and general wellbeing of the country. A vast proportion of the public business of Káthiáwár is conducted by, and at the cost of, the Darbars; so that in a Province with nearly the area of Oudh and the population of Ceylon, a Political Agent and 5 Assistants form the administrative staff. The largest rivers are in course of being bridged; in the principal towns municipal buildings and hospitals have been erected, tanks have been

excavated, and wells dug. BHAUNAGAR has taken the lead among the States in the material development of her resources, and is the first State in India which has set to work to construct a railway at her own expense and risk.

The principal products of the country are cotton, *bájra*, and *joár*, and in some parts sugar-cane, turmeric, and wild indigo, which latter product might be more largely cultivated with advantage. Horses, formerly of excellent repute, are bred in large quantities, and sheep are plentiful in some parts, their wool forming, together with grains and raw cotton, the chief articles of export. The principal imports are cotton manufactures, metals, and sugar. Iron is found in many parts of Baradá and Hállár. At Bakharla (a village belonging to the Porbandar State) there are many iron-mines, but these have been abandoned on account of want of fuel for smelting the ore. The principal wild animals include the lion (found in the Gír range), panther, cheetah, red antelope, hog, hyena, wolf, jackal, wild cat, fox, porcupine, and smaller vermin. The year 1814-15 was called the 'Rat Year,' from the famine produced by the ravages of this animal. Captain Le Grand Jacob remarked of this pest: 'They appear suddenly in dense masses past all counting, as if springing from the earth about the harvest season. Nothing can stop them—fires, ditches, and water have been tried in vain; they move along, a mighty host, eating up all that comes in their way. All at once they vanish as if by magic, and for years not one is to be seen; they are about double the size of a common rat, and are of a reddish sandy colour.'

Káthiáwár has many notable antiquities, which have been fully described by Mr. James Burgess, Archæological Reporter to the Government of Bombay, in his illustrated report. Besides the famous inscription of Asoka already referred to, there are a number of rock-cut Buddhist caves and temples at Junágarh, mentioned by Hiouen Thsang in the seventh century, and some fine Jain temples on Mount Gírnár and Pálitána. At Ghumli, a former capital of the Jáitwas, there are extensive ruins.

The principal towns are JAMNAGAR, BHAUNAGAR, JUNAGARH, RAJKOT (the headquarters of the Political Agent), PORBANDAR, and MANGROL. The last two, as well as VERAWAL, are thriving seaports, with which, as well as anchorages, Káthiáwár appears to be well provided, a list of no less than 60 having been compiled by Commander Taylor, I.N., Superintendent of Indian Marine Surveys. There are 11 lights along the coast from Beyt (Gulf of Kutch) to Khunbandar (Gulf of Cambay).

Kathirúr (*Kutiatur*).—Town in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 58′ 40″ N., long. 75° 31′ 54″ E.; pop. (1871), 3954; number of houses, 373. The headquarters of our troops during the Kotiote rebellion (1796-1805).

Kathiwára.—One of the petty States in the Bhopáwár or Bhíl (Bheel) Agency, under the Central Indian Agency and the Government of India. The chief is Thákur Bahádur Sinh. Revenue, about £120.

Kathmandu.—Capital of Nepál State.—*See* KHATMANDU.

Kathna.—River, rising in the Moti-ka-Tál in Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces (lat. 28° 20′ N., long. 80° 21′ E.), and flowing in a south-easterly direction, forms for some distance the boundary between Sháhjahánpur and Kheri Districts; it afterwards enters Oudh, and, continuing its course south-east through Kheri and Sítápur Districts, empties itself into the left bank of the Gumti in the latter District in lat. 27° 20′ N., long. 80° 27′ E. Not navigable, but might probably be made so for small boats.

Kathrota.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £100; a tribute of £5 is paid to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Katiári.—*Parganá* in Bílgrám *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Pali *parganá*; on the east by Barwán and Sandi *parganás*; on the south and south-west by Bhojpur and Táligrám *parganás* of Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces; and on the west by Khákhatmau and Paramnagar *parganás* of Farrukhábád, from which it is separated by the Ganges. Originally occupied by Thatheras, Baihár Ahirs, and Dhánuks contemporaneously, and the ruined sites of their forts and villages are visible in all directions. The displacement of these early tribes was effected by conquest by Sombansis from Sandi, under Kánh Randhír Sinh; by Báchhils from Sháhjahánpur, under Udái and Tás; and by Katiars from near Gwalior, under Rái Deo Datt, ancestor in the twelfth generation of the present head of the Katiár clan, Rájá Sir Hardeo Baksh, K.C.S.I. These families still own the *parganá*, with the exception of two or three villages. A fertile alluvial tract, intersected by streams and channels which in flood-time connect the Ganges and Rámganga rivers. Its fertility is due to the nearness of water to the surface, and to the deposit of rich loam (*seo*) brought down by the rivers, which in heavy floods often varies from 6 inches to 2 feet in thickness. In such a season, the extraordinary spring crops more than compensate for the loss of the autumn crops drowned by the inundation. Area, 90 square miles, of which 61, or 67·45 per cent., are cultivated. The uncultivable area is returned at less than 11 per cent. of the whole. Government land revenue, £5880; average incidence, 3s. 0½d. per acre of cultivated area, or 2s. 0⅝d. per acre of total area. Staple products, wheat and barley, which occupy nearly half of the cultivated area; and barley and *joár*, which take up another third. Of the 80 villages comprising the *parganá*, 58½ are owned by Katiár Kshattriyas, 12 by

Sombansis, 5 by Báchíls, 2½ by Bais, and 1 each by Gaurs and Bráhmans. Tenures are as follow:—*Tálukdárí*, 19 villages (the estate of Rájá Sir Hardeo Baksh); imperfect *pattidárí*, 57; and *zamíndárí*, 4. Population (1869), Hindus, 34,516; Musalmáns, 648; total, 35,164, viz. 19,544 males and 15,620 females; average density of population, 391. Predominant castes — Bráhmans, 6310; Kshattriyas, 5145; Chamárs, 4450; Kahárs, 2912; Ahírs, 2883; Muráos, 2335. Government schools in 5 villages.

Kátigorá.—Village and *tháná* in the west of Cáchár District, Assam; on the right or north bank of the Barák river, near its bifurcation into the Surmá and Kusiára branches. Lat. 24° 53′ N., long. 92° 38′ E. A colony of Manipurís is settled here; the men, besides their occupation of agriculture, also manufacture brass vessels, while the women weave fine cotton cloth and mosquito curtains.

Kátipára.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the banks of the Kabadak, 10 miles north of Chándkhálí. Lat. 22° 46′ N., long. 89° 54′ E. This was one of the first spots of land reclaimed in the Sundarbans. It contains a settlement of the Káyasth or writer caste; the rest of the inhabitants are engaged in cultivation, either in the neighbourhood or in the newer Sundarban clearings farther south.

Kátjurí.—River of Cuttack District, Orissa. A deltaic distributary of the MAHANADI, which branches off from the main stream soon after it enters Cuttack District. The Kátjurí itself immediately divides into two, of which the southern branch under the name of the Koyákhái passes into Purí District. The northern branch, which retains the name of the Kátjurí, throws off the Suruá, which after a few miles rejoins the parent stream. Lower down, the Kátjurí throws off two other minor distributaries, the Large and Little Devi, which unite after a southerly course of about 20 miles, and fall into the Bay of Bengal in Purí District under the name of the DEVI. A cross stream connects the Mahánadi with the Kátjurí, which latter river ultimately falls into the Bay of Bengal under the name of the JOTDAR.

Katná.—River of Bhágalpur District, Bengal; formed by the united waters of the Talabá, Parwán, and Loran. It is a considerable stream, navigable by boats of about 15 tons burden; and after a course of about 12 miles, falls into the Tíljugá in Monghyr District, in lat. 25° 34′ N., long. 86° 46′ 30″ E.

Kátol.—The north-western *tahsíl* or revenue Subdivision in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated between lat. 21° 9′ and 21° 31′ N., and between long. 78° 17′ and 79° 6′ E. Pop. (1872), 140,201, residing in 358 townships or villages and 25,634 houses, on an area of 804 square miles.

Kátol.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; built on an irregular site upon the left bank of the Jám, 40 miles from Nágpur.

Lat. 21° 16′ 30″ N., long. 78° 38′ E. Contains an ancient temple to Bhawání, built, without mortar, of layers of sandstone brought from a distance, and grotesquely carved. A ruined fort overhangs the river. Pop. (1870), about 4000, chiefly agricultural. A school building and market-place have lately been constructed.

Katoria.—One of the petty States of Gohelwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue, £200; a tribute of £19 is payable to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Katosán.—Petty State in Mahi Kánta, Bombay. Estimated pop. (1875), 4505; estimated revenue, £2000; a tribute of £159 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief is Thákur Kurram Sinh, a Múkwána Kolí.

Katra.—Village in Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated on a pass in the lower Káimur range, between Allahábád and Rewah, distant from the former 63 miles south-east. Lat. 24° 51′ N., long. 82° 11′ E. The road from Mírzápur rises gradually by successive terraces, and follows the course of the little river Sioti. The summit of the pass has an elevation of 1219 feet above sea level.

Katra (or *Akbarpur*).—Town and headquarters of a police circle (*tháná*) in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Lakhandái river. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 1906; Muhammadans, 302; total, 2208. The police station is built on the ruins of an old mud fort west of the village.

Katra Medni Sinh.—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; situated 2 miles from the Sái river, and 4 from Bela town. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 1917; Muhammadans, 845; total, 2762. The village contains an immense masonry tank, the largest in Oudh; but it is useless, having been allowed to fall out of repair. Seven Hindu and 2 Jain temples, also 5 mosques. Market; annual fair in the month of Kuár, attended by about 12,000 persons.

Ka-tseng.—Revenue circle in Hmaw-bhí township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 20 square miles, comprising a vast treeless plain, triangular in shape and intersected by numerous tidal creeks, most of which are navigable at the flood, and spanned at the villages by high wooden foot-bridges. The whole country is subject to inundation; soil, poor; area under rice (1876), 17,788 acres. Agricultural stock (1877)—buffaloes, 1006; cows, bulls, and bullocks, 178; ploughs, 502; boats, 186. Pop. (1871), 3410, mainly agriculturists and coolies, inhabiting 10 villages; gross revenue (1876), £2337.

Kattywar.—Group of Native States, forming the peninsula of Guzerat (Gujarát) Province, Bombay.—*See* KATHIAWAR.

Katuá.—River in Bhágalpur District, Bengal.—*See* PARWAN.

Katu-byeng.—Revenue circle in Ka-ma township, Thayet District,

Pegu Division, British Burma. Comprises the once independent circles of Tha-gnyan, Tsheng-tshway-myoung, Zí-daw, Kywai-goung, Gún-meng-myoung, and Tsambay-khyún. Total pop. (1876), 1626; gross revenue, £437.

Kátwá (*Cutwa*).—Subdivision of Bardwán District, Bengal; situated between lat. 23° 28′ and 23° 50′ 15″ N., and long. 87° 49′ and 88° 19′ 30″ E. Area, 407 square miles, with 577 villages or towns, 55,043 houses, and a population (1872) of 242,818, viz. Hindus, 196,519, or 81 per cent.; Muhammadans, 46,207, or 18·9 per cent.; Christians, 25; 'others,' 67; total, 242,818, viz. 115,389 males and 127,429 females. Proportion of males, 47·5 per cent.; density of population, 596 per square mile; number of villages, 1·42 per square mile; persons per village, 421; houses per square mile, 135; persons per house, 4·4. This Subdivision, which was constituted in January 1847, comprises the three police circles (*thánás*) of Kátwá, Kátagrám, and Mangalkot. In 1870-71, it contained one court, with magisterial, civil, and revenue jurisdiction; with a regular police force of 96, and a village police of 2217 men; cost of Subdivisional administration, £4771.

Kátwá (*Cutwa*).—Municipal town and headquarters of above Subdivision, and of a police circle (*tháná*) in Bardwán District, Bengal; situated at the confluence of the Bhágirathi and Ajái rivers. Lat. 23° 38′ 55″ N., long. 88° 10′ 40″ E. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 6817; Muhammadans, 1131; Christians, 15; total, 7963, viz. 3681 males and 4282 females. Municipal income (1876-77), £504; expenditure, £497; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 2⅞d. per head. Besides the usual Government courts and buildings, Kátwá contains an aided English school and a charitable dispensary. It is also one of the principal seats of District trade, and the residence of many wealthy native merchants. Now a purely commercial town, it was formerly considered as the key to Murshidábád. In the early part of the 18th century, Kátwá and its neighbourhood suffered much from the incursions of the Marhattás, whose yearly raids depopulated the villages along the banks of the river, and converted the country into jungle. The old fort of Kátwá, of which scarcely a vestige now remains, was situated on a tongue of land at the confluence of the Ajai and Bhágirathi, and is noted as the scene of the defeat of the Marhattás by Alí Vardí Khán. It was a mud building, half a mile in circumference, and mounted 14 guns. Kátwá is considered sacred by the Vaishnavs, as having been the place where their apostle, Chaitanya, took upon himself the life of an ascetic.

Katyár.—Government village, Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind; situated eleven miles west of Tando Muhammad Khán and twenty miles from Haidarábád city. The headquarters of a *tappadár*. Population (1872), 1125. The Musalmáns are chiefly landed proprietors, cultivators, weavers, dyers, and saddle-cloth makers. The

Hindus are traders, goldsmiths, and cultivators. Trade and manufactures unimportant, consisting mainly of cloth, grain, *ghí*, mats, and saddle-cloths. Good staging bungalow (travellers' rest-house).

Kaundha.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; situated on the Sháhábád road, 5 miles north-west of Hardoi town. An agricultural village, inhabited chiefly by Chamár Gaurs, whose ancestors dispossessed the Thatheras in the latter days of the Kanauj kingdom. These Gaurs have always had a bad reputation for turbulence and refractoriness. On one occasion, during the native government, their village was burned in retaliation for their having murdered the son of a Musalmán *chakládár*. Even at the present day, their one redeeming quality is said to be that they are not addicted to female infanticide. Pop. (1869), 2186. Bi-weekly market. Government school.

Kauriála.—River, rising in Thibet, in lat. 30° 43′ N., and long. 80° 47′ E. It flows through Nepál generally in a south-easterly direction till it emerges from the lower range of the Himálayas, through a deep, picturesque gorge, known as the Shísha Páni, 'crystal waters.' The stream here is about 300 yards broad and of great depth, with a slow current, closely shut in by precipitous mountains, 2500 feet high. A little below Shísha Páni, the channel widens, with a steeper and rockier descent, causing magnificent rapids nearly half a mile broad. Lower down, the river divides into two, the western branch retaining the name of Kauriála, the eastern being called the Gírwá. A few years ago, the latter was a mere stream, but its volume has gradually increased till now it is considerably larger than the Kauriála. They are both rapid rivers, with pebbly beds, and fords which an elephant can generally cross without difficulty. Eighteen miles from its point of exit from the hills, it enters British territory at the point where it receives the Mohán; and marks the boundary between the Oudh Districts of Kheri and Bahraich. In its course it receives as tributaries on the west bank its former offshoot, the GIRWA; and on the east, the CHAUKA and SARDA. From the point of confluence with the latter stream, the united rivers become the GOGRA; and under this name it ultimately falls into the left bank of the Ganges in lat. 25° 46′ N., long. 84° 40′ E. The Kauriála is navigable by large boats of about 17 tons burden beyond the limits of British territory. The principal river trade is the export of grain, and of timber, ginger, pepper, wax, *ghí*, and catechu from Nepál. Gold-washing is carried on by a caste called after their occupation Sunáhis. Fish are abundant.

Kauriya.—Chiefship in Ráipur District, Central Provinces; about 80 miles east of Ráipur on the Sambalpur road; consisting of 152 villages. The land is poor and mostly waste, and the quit-rent nominal. The chief is a Gond.

Kauriya.—Village in Narsinhpur District, Central Provinces; on

the high-road between Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Hoshangábád, about 2 miles from Gádarwára. Lat. 22° 55′ 30″ N., long. 78° 33′ E. Important for the large cotton sales transacted in January and February. The manufactures are insignificant. Pop. (1877), 3167, chiefly agriculturists. Kauriya belongs to the Rájá of Gangái. It has a good town school, and the main streets are drained.

Kavái.—Town in Cherakál *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 10° 56′ N., long. 75° 58′ E.; pop. (1871), 5882; number of houses, 1232. The north frontier town of Malabar, situated on an island a few miles from Mount Dilli. There is a ruined French redoubt here.

Kavale-durga (*'Guarding Hill-fort'*).—Hill in Shimoga District, Mysore; crowned by ruined fortifications, 3058 feet above the sea. Lat. 13° 43′ 53″ N., long. 75° 9′ 20″ E. By local tradition it is identified with the Kámyakávana of the *Mahábhárata*. Subsequently it was called Bhuvana-giri, and was a stronghold of the Ikkeri chiefs. The old town, formerly headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name, lies to the west of the hill.

Kavandappádi (*Koundapaddi*). — Agricultural town in Bhaváni *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 11° 23′ N., long. 77° 42′ E.; pop. (1871), 6898; number of houses, 1600.

Káveri.—River of Madras.—*See* CAUVERY.

Káveripák. — Town in Wallájah *táluk*, North Arcot District, Madras; 10 miles east of Arcot. Lat. 12° 54′ N., long. 79° 30′ E.; pop. (1871), 5711; number of houses, 963. Notable for its irrigation tank, one of the finest in Southern India, which supplies water to about 6000 acres of rice land. It is fed by a channel from the Palár, and in its surplus weir are the head-waters of the Cortelliár, which supplies Madras city with drinking water. The nominal area of cultivable land under this tank is about 40,000 acres, but deposits of silt have greatly impaired its efficiency. Wild duck and other waterfowl are abundant. Clive here gained a complete victory over the French in 1752.

Káveripatam (*Cauveripatam*).—Town in Krishnagiri *táluk*, Salem District, Madras. Lat. 12° 25′ N., long. 78° 16′ E.; pop. (1871), 4410; number of houses, 865. An irregularly built place on the Pennár, with a considerable trade in oil-seeds and cattle. The fort was taken by the English in 1767, and almost immediately recaptured by Haidar Alí, who strengthened the works, and used them as a support in the following campaign, until his withdrawal above the Gháts, when Colonel Wood again captured the place. In 1790, Káveripatam was Colonel Maxwell's headquarters before advancing against Tipú.

Káveripur.—Town in Bhaváni *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 11° 55′ N., long. 77° 47′ E.; pop. (1871), 6532; number of houses, 1307. Formerly a fort of some importance, as it stands at the mouth

of one of the passes from Mysore, and was an outpost of Tirumala, or Náyak of Madura, against the inroads of the Kartars. In 1768, it was captured by Colonel Wood; the following year, after a most spirited defence by Captain Faisan, it was retaken by Haidar Alí. The fort and pass were points of strategic importance throughout the Mysore wars, the pass being much used for convoys in the final struggle.

Kávite.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 19° 35′ 30″ N., long. 84° 35′ E.; pop. (1871), 4267.

Kawarda.—Feudatory chiefship attached to Bilápur District, Central Provinces; situated between lat. 21° 51′ and 22° 29′ N., and between long. 81° 3′ and 81° 40′ E. Pop. (1872), 75,462, of whom 40,846 are Hindus, residing in 356 villages and 19,450 houses, on an area of 887 square miles, of which about 113,000 acres were cultivated and 176,000 acres cultivable waste. The western part of the chiefship consists of a network of hills known as the Chílpi range, along the base of which spreads the valuable portion of the estate. Much of the soil is excellent, and produces fine crops of cotton. Rice, wheat, and oil-seeds are also grown; and the forest produce is of some value.

Kawarda.—Headquarters of the Kawarda chiefship, situated at the foot of the Sáletekrí range, 60 miles west of Bilápur. Lat. 22° 1′ N., long. 81° 15′ E. Has lately risen into a town, with a population in 1872 of 6590, where a considerable trade takes place in cotton and lac. The houses are mostly tiled, a rare feature in Chhattísgarh; and the presence of the high priest of the Kabír Panthí sect attracts devotees from all parts of India.

Kaw-bhien.—Revenue circle in the Gyaing Attaran township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 2883; gross revenue, £752.

Kaw-dwot.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 1600; land revenue, £482, and capitation tax, £165.

Ka-wek.—Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in the delta of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Area, 15 square miles; chief stream, the Pú-lú, navigable at all times by river steamers. Pop. (1876), 2211; gross revenue, £729.

Kaw-hmú.—Revenue circle in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The western portion consists of high undulating forest-covered country; the eastern of low swampy ground or vast sheets of water—the Bhúra-gyí, A-hpyouk, and A-twot-eng being the chief lakes. Most of the villages lie in the centre of the circle. Pop. (1876-77), 7012; total revenue, £1854.

Kaw-ka-dwot.—Village in the Bhíleng Kyaik-hto township, Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 1333,

chiefly agriculturists and fishermen. Police station; bi-weekly cattle market in the dry season.

Kaw-ka-may.—Revenue circle in Tsit-toung Subdivision, Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 112 square miles, extending from Kyaik-hto southwards to the coast; pop. (1876), 4723, mainly Talaings; gross revenue, £1978.

Kaw-ka-riet.—Revenue circle in Houng-tharaw township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; lies between the crest of the Dawna spur and Houng-tharaw river. Pop. (1876), 3240; land revenue, £280, and capitation tax, £153.

Kaw-ka-riet. — Headquarters of the Houng-tharaw township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. A straggling village on both banks of the small stream of the same name, here spanned by a wooden bridge. Pop. (1876), 2135. Weekly cattle market.

Kaw-ka-rit.—Revenue circle on the Rwon-za-leng river, Salwín Hill Tracts, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 3601; land revenue, £148, and capitation tax, £153.

Kaw-kha-ní.—Revenue circle in Zaya township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 4260 acres, of which about two-thirds are cultivable uplands; pop. (1876), 1406; land revenue, £315, and capitation tax, £141.

Kaw-lí-ya.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-gyeng township, Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 192 square miles; pop. (1876), 3312, mainly Talaings; gross revenue, £1756.

Kaw-lú-do.—A mountainous and forest-clad revenue circle in the north of the Salwín Hill Tracts, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 4074, chiefly Karengs; land revenue, £90, and capitation tax, £137.

Kaw-lún.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 2215; land revenue, £83, and capitation tax, £246.

Kaw-pa-ran. — Revenue circle in the Zaya township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; extends westwards from the Toung-gnyo spur to the sea. Pop. (1876), 2844, chiefly Talaing agriculturists; land revenue, £609, and capitation tax, £246.

Kayalpatam. — Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. — *See* KOILPATAM.

Kayan (or *Ken*).—River of Central India.—*See* KEN.

Káyenkolam (*Quilon*).—Seaport on the backwater of the same name, Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 8° 53′ 28″ N., long. 76° 36′ 59″ E.; containing 520 houses and 2379 inhabitants. This old town was formerly the capital of an independent State, Quilon; and is near the supposed site of the ancient *Nel Kynda*. In 829, the Syrian Church

was founded here. Captured by the Dutch in 1661; in 1789, the kingdom of Quilon lapsed to the Rájá of Káyenkolam. In 1742, the Rájá submitted to Travancore; and fifteen years later, the State was finally absorbed by its more powerful neighbour.

Kázípára.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 43′ 45″ N., long. 88° 33′ E. The site of a large annual fair held in December or January, in honour of a famous Musalmán saint, Pír Ekdil Sáhíb, which is attended by Hindus as well as Muhammadans. About 300 acres of land are held by Muhammadan priests for the maintenance of the mosque, and the due performance of religious services. An account of the legend connected with the saint, and of the miracles performed by him, is given in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. i. pp. 110, 111.

Kedár Ganga.—Mountain torrent in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces. According to Thornton, it rises in a snow-clad rocky gorge, in lat. 30° 54′ N., long. 79° 5′ E., and, after a rapid north-westerly course of 10 or 12 miles, falls into the Bhágirathi, on the left side, just below Gangotri, in lat. 30° 59′ N., long. 78° 59′ E. It is subject to sudden floods, from the melting of the snow, and therefore varies greatly in breadth and volume from time to time.

Kedár Kánta.—Mountain peak in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces. Thornton states that this is the highest summit in the Himálayan range which separates the head-waters of the Jumna and the Tons. Lat. 31° 1′ N., long. 78° 14′ E. The mountain slopes gently upward on every side, so that the ascent can be easily performed from any quarter. Beds of white saccharoid limestone form the base; the summit consists of micaceous schist. Forests of oak, pine, yew, horse chestnut, and rhododendron clothe the shoulders; but the greater vegetation abruptly ceases at an elevation of 10,000 feet, leaving the remainder of its height clad only with grasses and alpine plants. Jacquemont found the summit free from snow at the end of May. Kedár Kánta formed a station in the Great Trigonometrical Survey of the Himálayas. Elevation above sea level, 12,541 feet.

Kedárnáth.—Famous temple and place of pilgrimage in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 44′ 10″ N., long. 79° 5′ 50″ E.; lying immediately below the snowy peak of Mahápanth, at an elevation of more than 11,000 feet above sea level, and only second in sanctity to the sister shrine of Badrináth. It marks the spot where an incarnation of Sudashin or Siva, after fighting his numerous battles, attempted to dive into the earth, to escape his pursuers, the Pándavas, but left his lower limbs above the surface in the shape of a holy rock, the remaining portions of his body being distributed elsewhere. Close to the temple rises a precipice known as Bhairab Jhamp, where devotees formerly committed suicide by flinging themselves from

the summit; but the British Government suppressed this practice shortly after the annexation. With Kedárnáth are included the temples of Kalpeswar, Madmaheswar, Tungnáth, and Rudranáth, the whole forming the Pánch Kedár, a famous round of pilgrimage, and containing the scattered portions of Siva's body. The Ráwal or chief priest is always a Bráhman of the Jangam caste from Mysore. He does not officiate at Kedár itself, but at the branch temples of Gapt, Káshi, and Ukimath, his adopted son or *chelá* taking the present shrine in charge. Immense numbers of pilgrims annually visit Kedárnáth.

Kedgeree (*Khejirí*).—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*tháná*) in Midnapur District, Bengal; also a telegraph station; situated on the right bank of the Húglí river, near its mouth. Lat. 21° 53′ N., long. 88° E.

Kediwári.—One of the mouths by which the Indus empties itself into the sea. Lat. 24° 2′ N., long. 67° 21′ E. Formerly the main channel of the river, with a depth of from 16 to 18 feet; but since 1845, the HAJAMRO, which in that year was only suited for the passage of small boats during floods, has gradually increased in volume, till it has taken the place of the Kediwári, and is now the largest of the Indus mouths.

Keitha.—Village in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces; lying on the road from Ráth to Jáitpur, and 56 miles south-west of the civil station. Lat. 25° 31′ N., long. 79° 36′ E.; pop. (1872), 1348. Occupied from 1812 to 1828 as a cantonment for British troops, but abandoned on account of its unhealthy situation. The English cemetery still exists, as well as the remains of a few buildings. Police outpost; good encamping ground.

Kekri.—Town in Ajmere-Mhairwára District, Rájputána. Estimated pop. (1872), about 5000 souls. Distant from Ajmere 50 miles. Formerly a thriving commercial town, but of late years declining in importance. Water supply scarce and bad. Headquarters of an extra-Assistant Commissioner. Post office and dispensary.

Keladi.—Village in Shimoga District, Mysore. Lat. 14° 13′ 10″ N., long. 75° 3′ 41″ E.; pop. (1871), 1064. Cradle of the family of local chieftains or *paligárs*, who rose to power in the 16th century, and successively removed their capital to IKKERI and BEDNUR or Nagar. The principal building now standing is a large, plain temple to Rámeswara and Virá-bhadra. Two mounds are still pointed out as the scene of human sacrifices.

Ke-la-tha.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; on the western slopes of the Toung-gnyú Hills. Pop. (1876), 1358; land revenue, £201, and capitation tax, £162.

Keljhar.—Town in Wardha District, Central Provinces; about 16 miles north-east of Wardha, on the old Nágpur and Bombay

high-road. Lat. 20° 51′ N., long. 78° 51′ E. Said to occupy the site of the ancient city of Chakranagar, which was preyed upon by a demon, as related in the sacred book *Bhárat*. In the gateway of what remains of a well-built fort, stands a famous image of Ganpati, in whose honour a yearly fair is held on the fifth day of Mágha Suddha, or about the end of January.

Kelod.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; at the foot of the Sátpura Hills, about 7 miles north of Sáoner, on the main road to Chhindwára. Lat. 21° 27′ 30″ N., long. 78° 55′ E.; pop. (1870), about 4300. The chief industry consists of the manufacture of excellent brass and copper vessels, which are exported as far as Amráoti and Ráipur. Kelod also produces rough glass ornaments. Several firms of Márwárí money-dealers have been long established, but their business is merely local. The town has a school, police buildings, and a market-place. According to tradition, Kelod was founded 14 generations ago by the ancestors of the present *málguzár* and *desmukh*, at the same time that a neighbouring Gaulí chief formed the extensive tank at Jatghar, near the town. The fort, now falling to decay, was probably built in the early Marhattá period.

Kelsi.—Port in Ratnágiri District, Bombay; situated 64 miles north by west of Ratnágiri town. Lat. 17° 55′ N., long. 73° 6′ E. Average annual value of trade during the five years ending 1873-74 returned as follows:—Imports, £5947; exports, £3810.

Kelva (*Kelven*).—Port in Tanna District, Bombay; 20 miles north by west of Bassein. Lat. 19° 36′ N., long. 72° 46′ E. Average annual value of trade—imports, £2327; exports, £5820.

Ken (or *Kayan*; the *Karnávati* of Sanskrit, and *Kainas* of the Greeks).—River of the North-Western Provinces; rises in the Native State of Bhopál, on the north-western slopes of the Vindhyá Mountains, and, flowing in a general northerly direction, past the town of Bánda, falls into the Jumna a few miles below Pailáni. Its source, in lat. 23° 54′ N., long. 80° 13′ E., has an elevation of 1700 feet above sea level. After a course of about 35 miles, it falls in a cataract over the brow of the Bandair range, at Pipariya *ghát*. It then takes a westerly direction, and, flowing parallel to the base of the mountains, receives the waters of the Patná and the Sunár on its left bank. Traversing the Native State of Panná, it enters Bánda District at the village of Bilharká (lat. 25° 8′ N., long. 80° 25′ E.), and is there joined by its affluents the Koil, Gawain, and Chandráwal. After a total course of 230 miles, it falls into the Jumna, on the right bank, near Chilla (lat. 25° 47′ N., long. 80° 33′ E.). Numerous rapids and cataracts interrupt its bed, and the channel is too much blocked by rocks to allow of navigation. Small craft of light burden, however, proceed in the rainy season from the Jumna as far up as the town of Bánda, a distance of 35 miles. Fish

abound; and beautiful quartz or basalt pebbles, found in the bed, are in great request for the manufacture of ornaments. The natives consider the water unwholesome. In time of flood, the volume of water at Kharauni amounts to 450,000 cubic feet per second; at Bánda, to 500,000 cubic feet. The Ken flows in a deep and well-defined bed, scoured out to a great width through the yielding clay of Bundelkhand by the flood-water. It is nowhere fordable in the rainy season. A system of irrigation canals, drawing their supplies from the Ken and the Bágain, is now in course of construction. The project consists in damming up the cold-weather supply of the river by erecting a weir at Kharauni, where it forces its way across a natural granite barrier, through an outlying spur of the Vindhyá range. The proposed capacity of the canal will be 350 cubic feet of water per second, 300 of which will be drawn from the Ken, and 50 from the Bágain. The length of the main line will extend to about 50 miles, with a system of distributaries commanding a gross area of about 1000 square miles. Estimated cost, £133,309.

Kenchengod.—Town in Bellary District, Madras; situated on the banks of the Tungabhadra. Lat. 15° 36′ N., long. 76° 54′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 1041; number of houses, 201. The town is now almost in ruins, but was the headquarters of one of the principal *paláyams* or military *zamíndáris* in former times.

Kenda.—Chiefship in Biláspur District, Central Provinces, adjoining the Láphá estate. Pop. (1870) about 5200; area, 298 square miles, of which less than 14,000 acres are cultivated; but the hilly portion contains some fine *sál* forests, and much lac is exported to Mírzápur. The chief is a Kunwár.

Kendrapára. — Subdivision of Cuttack District, Orissa; situated between lat. 20° 1′ 50″ and 20° 39′ 15″ N., and between long. 86° 14′ and 86° 49′ 30″ E. Area, 617 square miles, with 932 villages and 49,314 houses. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 240,977, or 97·9 per cent.; Muhammadans, 4128, or 1·7 per cent.; Christians, 36; 'others,' 944, or 0·4 per cent.; total, 246,085, viz. 119,736 males and 126,349 females. Proportion of males, 48·7 per cent.; density of population, 398 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·51; persons per village, 264; houses per square mile, 79; inmates per house, 4·9. This Subdivision, which was constituted in January 1859, comprises the 2 police circles of Kendrapára and Patámundái. In 1870-71, it contained a magisterial and revenue court, a regular police force 93 strong, and a village watch numbering 888; cost of Subdivisional administration, £3670.

Kendrapára.—Municipal town and headquarters of above Subdivision, and of a police circle, Cuttack District, Orissa; situated a few miles north of the Chitartalá branch of the Mahánadi. Lat. 20° 29′ 55″ N., long. 86° 27′ 35″ E. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 9442; Muham-

madans, 1225; Christians, 10; 'others,' 5; total, 10,682, viz. 5201 males and 5481 females. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £202; expenditure, £218; average incidence of taxation, 4⅞d. per head of municipal population. During the Marhattá rule, a magistrate (*faujdár*) was stationed here for the purpose of checking the depredations of the Rájá of Kujang, who had for centuries preyed upon the surrounding country.

Kendrapára Canal.—A branch of the Orissa Canal System. It starts from the right flank of the Birupá weir, and proceeds along the north and west bank of the Mahánadi, and of its distributaries the Chitartalá and the Nún, in a due easterly direction for 42½ miles, to Marsághái, in tidal waters 23 miles from False Point. This canal was opened in May 1869. A branch canal, 40 miles in length, taking off from the north or left bank of the Kendrapára Canal, passing along the north bank of the Birupá and Bráhmani, and falling into the latter river at Patámundái near the Dhámrá estuary, has just been completed. An extension of the Kendrapára Canal, from Marsághái towards the sea-coast, for a distance of 15 miles, was sanctioned in 1872-73, in order to improve the communication with False Point harbour, and is still (1878) in course of construction. The Kendrapára Canal proper is designed to irrigate 385 square miles; but as less than two-thirds of this area will require simultaneous irrigation, the canal only carries water for 234 square miles, or 150,000 acres. The Patámundái branch canal is intended to irrigate 113,000 acres. The extension from Marsághái towards False Point is intended for navigation only. The head lock of the Kendrapára Canal, at the Birupá weir, is 100 feet from sill to sill, and 17 feet wide. The sills are 59·5 feet above sea level, and the gates 18½ feet in height. The canal is divided into 7 reaches, with a width at water line varying from 75 to 160 feet, a uniform depth of 7 feet, a fall ranging from 0 to 6 inches per mile, and a minimum capacity of discharge varying in the different reaches from 340 to 740 cubic feet per second in the dry season, and up to 2000 in the rains. The total fall of the canal from its head to its outfall at Marsághái is 64 feet, the levels being adjusted by means of 8 locks, the last of which is a tidal lock at Marsághái, with a fall of 10 feet, the upper sill being 6 feet above mean sea level, and the lower sill 4 feet below. At low-water spring tide there is always 3½ feet of water on the lower sill. At Mutri, in the 37th mile, is an escape or waste weir capable of discharging 360 cubic feet per second. Six syphon culverts have been led underneath the canal, and 4 traffic bridges, in addition to the lock bridges, have been constructed across it.—*See* also MAHANADI RIVER.

Kenduli.—Village in Bírbhúm District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Ajai. Lat. 23° 38′ 30″ N., long. 87° 28′ 15″ E. Birthplace of Jáyadevá, a Vishnuvite reformer and Sanskrit poet, the author of

the celebrated *Gita Govinda*, a Sanskrit poem in praise of Krishna. An annual fair in honour of Jáyadeva is held in the village on the last day of Mágh (the commencement of February), and is attended by upwards of 50,000 persons.

Keng.—A revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 7 square miles; pop. (1876), 3668; gross revenue, £776. Chief products—rice, indigo, and coarse sugar.

Keng-dat.—Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 30 square miles, occupying the angle formed by the junction of the rivers Daga and Nga-won; undulating in the west. Pop. (1876), 4602; gross revenue, £1348.

Kengeri (or *Tengeri*, 'Southern Street').—Municipal village in Bangalore District, Mysore; 9 miles south-west of Bangalore. Lat. 12° 54′ N., long. 77° 32′ E.; pop. (1871), 2155; municipal revenue (1874-75), £22; rate of taxation, 2d. per head. In 1866, an Italian gentleman, Signor De Vecchi, attempted, with the assistance of Government, to revive sericulture in this neighbourhood. He imported cartoons of silkworm eggs from Japan, and established a steam filature at Kengeri, where the delicate process of winding was performed by female orphans from the Bangalore convent, under the superintendence of native nuns. But a severe drought proved fatal to the imported worms, and though the stock has twice been replenished, the disease has not been eradicated, and the industry has again fallen into its former state of depression.

Keng-khyoung.—Revenue circle in Zaya township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Extends from the Toung-gnyo Hills on the east, to the Salwín (Salwen) river on the west. The eastern portion consists of high forest land; the western, where the river banks are fringed with *dhani* plantations, is very fertile. Pop. (1876), 3267, chiefly Talaing agriculturists; land revenue, £721, and capitation tax, £317.

Keng-rwa.—Revenue circle in Tsit-toung Subdivision, Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 220 square miles, slightly cultivated; pop. (1877), 4865; gross revenue, £1003.

Keng-rwa.—Village in the circle of the same name, in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Government rest-house, small police force; pop. (1877), 1349, chiefly engaged in orchard cultivation.

Keobrang.—Pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, over a ridge forming the boundary between Kunáwar and Chinese territory. Lat. 31° 36′ N., long. 78° 54′ E. Thornton states that the pass lies within the Chinese boundary, but that the severity of the climate prevents their establishing an outpost on the spot, so that Europeans have repeatedly visited it. It has been found free from snow at the end of July. Elevation above sea level, 18,313 feet.

Keonthal.—One of the Punjab Hill States, under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab; lies around Simla Station, between lat. 30° 55′ 30″ and 31° 6′ N., and between long. 77° 10′ and 77° 25′ E. Area, 116 square miles; estimated population (1875), 50,000; the revenue in 1876 was estimated at £6000. Principal products, opium and grain. The present Rájá is Mahandar Sain, a Rájput by caste, born about 1828. The chief of Keonthal was formerly called Ráná, but was raised by the British Government to the higher rank of Rájá in 1857. After the Gúrkha war a portion of the territory of Keonthal, which had been occupied by the Gúrkhas, was sold to the Mahárájá of Patiála. In consideration of this, no tribute is paid by the Keonthal Rájá for the remainder of his State, which was restored to him by *sanad* in 1815, on the expulsion of the Gúrkhas from the country. The Rájá holds another *sanad*, dated September 1815, conferring on the Keonthal chief, and his heirs for ever, paramount authority over the petty States of THEOG, KOTHI, GHUND, and KHAIRI, the chiefs of which, with their descendants, are bound to regard the chief of Keonthal as their liege, and to pay an annual tribute as follows:—Kothi, £50; Theog, £50; Ghúnd, £25; Khairí, £25. A third *sanad* was granted to Keonthal, conferring Púnar on him and his heirs. It is dated 1823, though the transfer was authorized in 1816. The reasons given for this measure were the isolated position of Púnar, the turbulent character of its inhabitants, the indisposition of Government to extend its territories in the hills, and a desire to confer a benefit on Keonthal. The tributaries of Keonthal are:—The Ráná of KOTHI, who obtained that rank for services during the Mutiny—area of his estate, 36 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 2500; and revenue, £600. The Thákur of THEOG—area of estate, 10 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 3000; and revenue, £330. The Thákur of MADHAN—area of estate, 13 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 1000; and revenue, £160. The Thákur of GHUND—area of estate, 3 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 1000; and revenue, £100. The Thákur of RATESH—area of estate, 3 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 437; and revenue, £20.

Kerála (or *Chera*).—Ancient kingdom of Southern India, one of the divisions of the Dravida country. In the most specific application of the name, Kerála was probably identical with the modern Malayálam country, *i.e.* the strip of land lying between the Western Gháts and the sea, from the southern boundaries of Tuluva—the Chendragiri river—to Cape Comorin. In earlier times the boundaries of Kerála and Chera (probably another form of the same root) do not appear to have been well defined; but it is likely that they met near the Palghát gap (*see* CHERA). Kerála, however, was certainly applied by some of the Sanskrit writers to the whole tract, and included Coimbatore and part of Salem.

The only part of the country in which the Sanskrit name now survives is Travancore. In the 3d century B.C. (Asoka's edict), its king is called Keralamputra (Celobotras—Pliny; Kerabothrus—Ptolemy; Ceprobothrus—the Periplus). This country, according to tradition, was miraculously reclaimed from the sea by Parasuráma. The last king of Kerála was Cheruman Perumál, who, before retiring, divided it among his principal followers.

Kerowlee (*Karauli*).—Native State in Rájputána.—*See* KARAULI.

Kerur.—Municipal town in Kaládgi District, Bombay; 14 miles south by east of Kaládgi. Lat. 16° 1′ N., long. 75° 36′ E.; pop. (1872), 7096; municipal income, £237.

Kesabpur.—Town in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the Harihár river about 18 miles south of Jessor town. Lat. 22° 54′ 45″ N., long. 89° 15′ 40″ E. The town is the second largest entrepôt of commerce in the District, and a great seat of the sugar trade. It contains numerous *kárkhánás* or refineries, conducted by Calcutta native merchants. Srípur, a suburb on the other side of the river, almost entirely consists of sugar-refineries. The town has a large import trade in rice; and manufactures enormous quantities of earthen pots and vessels for the purpose of sugar manufacture. Another local manufacture is brasswork. Two large *bázárs* or market-places.

Kesariya.—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*thána*), in Champáran District, Bengal. Two miles south of the village, on the road to Sattar *ghát*, stands a lofty brick mound 1400 feet in circumference at its base, capped by a solid brick tower, 62 feet high. The date of this tower (a memorial of Buddhism) is assigned by General Cunningham to between 200 and 500 A.D. The common people call it Rájá Ben *ka deora*, after a traditional monarch who is said to have been one of five Supreme Emperors of India. A tank a little to the south is also called after this king.

Keslábori.—Ancient village in Chánda District, Central Provinces; beneath the Chimúr Hills, 10 miles north-north-east of Segáon. Lat. 20° 25′ N., long. 79° 17′ 30″ E. Once a large town, but now reduced to a few huts. It has a considerable area under rice, irrigated by a hill spring, the water of which proves injurious when drunk by strangers. Near the village is the Rámdighi pool, a basin about 40 feet in diameter and of unknown depth, hollowed out of the rock, into which falls, during the rains, a stream of some size from a precipice above. According to tradition, Ráma formed the pool; and an ancient temple still overhangs it, in which are two good carvings of a warrior with shield and straight sword.

Kesria.—One of the petty States in Jhaláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £165; tribute of £27 is paid to the British Government.

Keti.—Port and town in Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 3199 souls, comprising 1855 Muhammadans, 1029 Hindus, and a few Christians and 'others.' Situated in lat. 24° 8′ 30″ N., long. 67° 28′ 30″ E., close to the sea, on the Hajámro branch of the Indus. Chief port in the delta for river and sea-going boats. Has taken the place of Ghorabári, a little farther inland on the same branch, and the principal commercial town of the surrounding tract in 1845. Ghorabári, or Bandar Vikar, was founded about 1826, and ten years later contained 1000 inhabitants. In 1836, Mír Nasir Khán, brother of the reigning Mír at Haidarábád, owned Ghorabári, and drew from it an annual revenue of over £10,000, the customs of the port alone having been farmed out for £5200; while 180 vessels frequented the harbour every year. In 1827, the exports (rice, *ghí*, grindstones) were valued at £26,500, and the imports (English cloth, raw cotton, metals, dates, slaves) at £10,050. In those days no route presented such facilities for the transport of goods to the Upper Delta as the Hajámro branch. In 1848, however, the river capriciously forsook that channel, and Ghorabári immediately dwindled into comparative insignificance. The trade of the deserted port then betook itself to the first Keti, nearer the sea; but about 1853 the place was swept away by a flood, and a new site was chosen in the neighbourhood. This second Keti, the existing town and harbour, now about twenty-five years old, soon attracted the river trade, and at present ranks next to Karáchí among the ports of Sind. Half the population leave the town during the inundation season, when it becomes unhealthy, and nothing is done in the way of trade; but they return about November, when the port is open for sea-going vessels. Exports, to the Bombay and Madras Presidencies, to Sonmiáni, and Makrán, comprise grain, pulses, oil-seeds, wool, cotton, drugs, dyes, saltpetre, and firewood. Imports, from the same places and the Persian Gulf, include cocoa-nuts, cotton piece-goods, metals, sugar, spices, coir, and shells. The following statement shows the value of the sea-borne trade of Keti in 1873-74:—To and from ports within Sind—exports, £164,135; imports, £19,424: to and from ports beyond Sind—exports, £116,188; imports, £37,629. The gross amount of customs duty collected during the same year was £3070, being import dues, £48, and export dues, £3022. During the prevalence of the south-west monsoon, trade remains at a stand-still, vessels being unable to make the harbour from seaward. In the brisk season, from 70 to 90 boats of various sizes may be seen lining the *bandar*. Sea-borne goods for transit up the Indus must be transferred to river boats. The total number of ships which entered the port from all quarters in 1873-74 was 1295, with a gross tonnage of 41,073 tons; the total number clearing for all ports was 1323, with a gross tonnage of 41,991 tons. The river trade of Keti, though considerable, is fluctuating. The

following statement gives particulars of this branch of traffic for the year 1873-74 :—Value of down-river trade, £274,268 ; value of up-river trade, £46,692 ; entered, down-river boats, 2915, with a burden of 1,241,155 *maunds;* cleared, up-river boats, 2862, with a burden of 1,204,336 *maunds.* The town has several times been in danger of floods, but, owing to its slightly elevated position, has hitherto escaped the fate of its predecessor. Communication by road with Tatta, 60 miles south-west; with Mírpur Sakro, 32 miles south-south-west; and with Ghorabári, 13 miles. Subsidiary jail, custom-house, Government charitable dispensary. Municipality, established in 1854, has an annual income ranging from £1000 to £1600, chiefly raised by town dues.

Keukuchi.—Halting-place in Bashahr State, Punjab, on the north-east slope of the Chárang Pass. Lat. 31° 27′ N., long. 78° 37′ E. According to Thornton, the abundance of fuel and herbage causes this spot to be selected as a camping-ground. The Nangalti, a rapid unfordable torrent, flows down the pass, and falls into the Tidang a few miles below Keukuchi. Elevation above sea level, 12,457 feet.

Keunjhar.—Native State of Orissa, lying between lat. 21° 1′ and 22° 9′ 30″ N., and long. 85° 14′ and 86° 24′ 35″ E. Bounded on the north by Singbhúm District; on the east by Morbhanj State and Balasor District; on the south by Cuttack District and Dhenkánal State; and on the west by Dhenkánal, Pal Lahára, and Bonái States. Keunjhar is divided into two wild tracts—Lower Keunjhar, including the valleys, and Upper Keunjhar, embracing the mountainous highlands. The latter consist of great clusters of rugged crags, which afford almost inaccessible retreats to their inhabitants; and which, although from the plains they appear to be sharply ridged or peaked, have extensive tablelands on their summits, equally fit for pasture and for tillage. The BAITARANI river takes its rise in the hilly north-western division. Principal peaks—Thákwáni, 3003 feet; Gandhá-Madán, 3479 feet; Tomák, 2577 feet; and Bolat, 1818 feet. Keunjhar is the second largest of the Orissa Tributary States; area, 3096 square miles, with 1469 villages, and 35,073 houses. Pop. (1872), classified according to religion—Hindus, 113,207, or 62·2 per cent.; Muhammadans, 487, or ·3 per cent.; Christian, 1; 'others,' consisting of aboriginal tribes who still retain their primitive forms of faith, 68,176, or 37·5 per cent.; total, 181,871, viz. males, 90,879, and females, 90,992. Average density of population 59 per square mile; villages per square mile, ·47; persons per village, 124; houses per square mile, 11; persons per house, 5·2. Classified according to race—aboriginal tribes, 44,438, or 24·3 per cent., principally composed of Kols (10,990), Gonds (10,407), Sáonts (7172), and Savars (5125); semi-Hinduized aborigines, 49,294, or 27·2 per cent., mainly composed of Páns (19,827), Bhuiyás (18,481), and Bathudis (7898); Hindu

castes, 87,651, or 48·2 per cent., the most numerous castes being Khandáits (22,225), Bráhmans (8583), and Gaurs (6743); Muhammadans, 487, or ·3 per cent. The principal village and residence of the Rájá is Keunjhar, situated on the Midnapur and Sambalpur road, lat. 21° 37′ 25″ N., long. 85° 37′ 31″ E. The State originally formed part of Morbhanj; but about 200 years ago, the tribes of this part finding it a great hardship to travel through the perilous forests of Morbhanj to obtain justice from their prince, separated themselves, and set up the brother of the Morbhanj Rájá as their independent ruler. Since then 27 chiefs have ruled. The last prince rendered good service during the Kol rebellion in 1857, and was rewarded by Government with the title of Mahárájá. He died in 1861, without legitimate issue. On Government nominating his natural son, the present Mahárájá, to the throne, a dispute arose as to the succession, which ultimately culminated in an insurrection of the Bhuiyá and Juang tribes in favour of an alleged adopted son, which called for the intervention of British troops before it was suppressed. Estimated annual revenue of the State, £6339; tribute, £197. The chief's militia consists of a force of 1758 men and 318 village police. A Government elephant (*khedá*) establishment is maintained at Keunjhar (1875), under the superintendence of an English officer, and a large number of valuable animals are captured. The Mahárájá maintains 20 schools in the State, attended by about 700 pupils; 19 other unaided schools exist.

Keunthál.—One of the Punjab Hill States.—*See* KEONTHAL.

Kewáni.—River of Kheri District, Oudh; takes its rise in the Jumáita *tál*, near the village of Jumáita, 4 miles south-west of Kheri town; flows a tortuous south-south-east course, and falls into the Chauká, at a distance of 40 miles from its source, as the crow flies. Near its source it is a narrow and shallow stream, but it deepens as it nears the Chauká. Non-navigable, and fordable everywhere, except during the rains. It has a breadth of about 50 feet, and an average depth of 9 feet during the rainy season. The large villages of SANDA and NABINAGAR are situated on its banks.

Kháb.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab; lies on the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), which flows between high cliffs of slate and granite. Lat. 31° 48′ N., long. 78° 41′ E. Thornton states that Kháb is the highest point where the grape ripens in Kunáwár, and that fields, vineyards, and apricot trees surround the village. Elevation above sea level, 9310 feet.

Kha-boung.—A river in Toung-gnú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Rises in the Pegu Yoma Hills, and after a south-west course of 68 miles falls into the Tsit-toung. Navigable for about 25 miles; teak, *theng-gan* (used for boat-building), sesamum, etc., are brought down this stream for the Toung-gnú market.

Khabul.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab; situated 1 mile from the right bank of the Pábur river, on the route from Subáthu to the Barenda Pass. Lat. 31° 15′ N., long. 77° 58′ E. The surrounding country is well tilled, irrigated by the mountain streams, and wooded with sycamores, chestnuts, and apricots. Elevation above sea level, 8400 feet.

Kha-daing.—A highly cultivated revenue circle in Martaban township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 683; land revenue, £1390, and capitation tax, £69.

Kha-dat-ngay. — Revenue circle in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 14 square miles; pop. (1876), 2045; gross revenue, £438. Chief products—rice, salt, and *dháni* palms.

Khadki.—Town in Poona District, Bombay.—*See* KIRKI.

Khága.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; lying along the south bank of the Ganges, and traversed by the East Indian Railway main line. Area, 263 square miles, of which only 125 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 118,634; land revenue, £21,007; total Government revenue, £23,113; rental paid by cultivators, £32,621; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 5⅞d.

Khágan.—Mountain valley in Hazára District, Punjab, penetrating far into the heart of the Himálayan system, and surrounded by independent territory on every side except the south. Area, 800 square miles; 60 miles in length, with an average breadth of 15 miles. Lofty ranges shut it in on either hand, their summits rising to a height of nearly 17,000 feet. Transverse spurs intersect the interior; and a thin population inhabit the glen. Through a narrow central gorge the river Kunhár forces its way to join the Jhelum (Jhílam), and drains the entire valley. Forests of cedar cover 457 square miles of the area, of which 54 square miles have been reserved by the Government. The Khágan valley forms the northernmost extension of British India, and stretches like an intrusive arm far up into the mountain region. Its open mouth turns towards the main body of the District and the Marri Hills. The inhabitants consist almost entirely of Muhammadan Swátis. Khágan village is situated in lat. 34° 46′ 45″ N., long. 75° 34′ 15″ E.

Khagaul.—Municipal town in Patná District, Bengal; situated a short distance south of Dinápur. Lat. 25° 34′ 30″ N., long. 85° 5′ E. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 3972; Muhammadans, 1069; Christians, 214; 'others,' 2; total, 5257, viz. 2665 males and 2592 females. Municipal income, 1871, £185; expenditure, £184. The Dinapur railway station is just outside the town, which, indeed, has only sprung into importance since the opening of the railway.

Khaghoriá.—Village in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal; situated on the Myání tributary of the Kásálang river. In 1872-73, a small colony

of Gúrkhas from the borders of Nepál was established here, with the object of getting some of the jungle cleared through their means. A sum of £10 was advanced to each family by the Deputy Commissioner, to enable the immigrants to purchase cattle and ploughs, and for their subsistence until they could raise a crop. The settlers, however, were unable to endure the deadly climate of the place; and in the following year they were removed to another settlement of their countrymen at Rángámátí, a healthier locality farther south, with whom they amalgamated and formed one colony.

Kháibar (*Khyber*).—A celebrated pass leading from Pesháwar District of the Punjab into Afghánistán; centre of pass, lat. 34° 6′ N., long. 71° 5′ E. The name is also applied to the range of hills in Yághistán, through which the pass runs. The Kháibar Mountains form, indeed, the last spurs of the SUFED KOH, as that mighty range sinks down into the valley of the Kábul river. The elevation of the connecting ridge is 3400 feet; but it rises to 6800 feet in the Tatara peak. On either side of the ridge which connects the Kháibar Mountains with the Sufed Koh, rise two small streams—the one flowing north-west to the Kábul river, the other south-south-east towards Jamrúd. The beds of these streams form the Kháibar defile. On the north of this defile is the Kháibar range; on its south is another range, which divides the defile from the Bárá valley, and which is also a spur of the Sufed Koh. These two ranges respectively throw out their spurs south and north like two combs placed with their teeth inwards, the teeth being prevented from quite meeting by the streams above mentioned.

The Kháibar Pass forms the great northern military route from Afghánistán into India; as the KURAM and GUMAL PASSES form the intermediate military and trade routes respectively, and the BOLAN PASS the great southern passage both for war and commerce. The Kháibar Pass commences near Jamrúd, to the west of Pesháwar, and twists through the hills for about 33 miles in a north-westerly direction, till it debouches at Dháka. The plains of Pesháwar District stretch from its eastern mouth; those of Jalálábád from its western exit. Beyond its eastern end is the remarkable collection of caves at Kadam; and beyond its western are many interesting remains of Buddhism and of ancient civilisation. The pass lies up the bed of a torrent, chiefly through slate rocks, and is subject to sudden floods. Burne's camp had a narrow escape below the fort of Alí Masjíd. The dangerous months for floods are July, August, December, and January. The gradient is generally easy, except at the Landí Kháná Pass, but is covered with loose stones, which become larger as the head of the stream is reached. The following details are condensed from Colonel MacGregor's official account.

Immediately on leaving Jamrúd, the defensible ground may be

said to commence, as the spurs come almost up to that place in round bare knolls of low actual height, but very sufficient command of the road. Kadam, however, 3 miles from Jamrúd, is generally considered to be the actual eastern entrance; at this point the hills begin to close in, and 1000 yards farther the width of the pass is 450 feet; the bed is easy, level, and covered with small shingle,—the hills on the left are very steep; 500 yards farther on, this width gradually lessens to 370 feet, the hills on either side being sheer precipices. At 1200 yards farther the width is 190 feet, the hills being steep for 50 or 60 feet in height, then sloping back; 850 yards farther the width is 240 feet, the hills on the right being precipitous, and on the left rounded and practicable; at 1050 yards farther the width is 280 feet, the hills being very steep on both sides; 850 yards farther the width is 210 feet, the hills on the right being perpendicular, and on the left not so steep; 1050 yards farther the width is 70 feet, the hills being very precipitous on both sides; 500 yards farther the width is 230 feet, the hills on the left being precipitous, and on the right rounded and practicable; 2 miles farther the width is 250 feet, the hills on the right being perpendicular, and on the left practicable; 1050 yards farther the width is 65 feet, the hills on both sides being very steep, those on the left perpendicular; 1050 yards farther the width is 110 feet, the hills on both sides being comparatively easy and practicable; 880 yards farther the width is 210 feet, the hills on the left being steep, and on the right open and easy; 2 miles 220 yards farther the width is 200 feet, the hills on the left being steepish, and on the right open and comparatively easy. At Alí Masjíd, 1300 yards farther, the width is 40 feet, the hills being perpendicular and impracticable. Between Kadam and this point, Moorcroft says, the mountains on either hand are about 1300 feet high, slaty, and to all appearance inaccessible; 1450 yards farther the width is 270 feet, hills on left precipitous, on right comparatively easy; 1 mile 1000 yards farther the width is 390 feet, the hills being very steep; 6½ miles beyond this lies the Lálábeg valley, which averages 1½ mile broad; 880 yards farther the width is 10 feet or less, the hills being quite perpendicular; in 1600 yards farther the road goes over the LANDI KHANA PASS, the width being 140 feet, and the hills being very steep, especially on the left; 3¼ miles farther the width is 300 feet, the hills being steep on the left, but not so precipitous on the right; 2¼ miles farther the width is 200 feet, the hills being very steep on both sides; 3 miles farther is Dháka, where the defile opens. The total length of the defile, therefore, from Jamrúd to Dháka is about 33 miles.

The elevation in feet of various points of the pass are—Jamrúd, 1670; Alí Masjíd, 2433; Landí Khána, 2488; Landí Kotál, 3373; Dháka, 1404. If the elevation of Jamrúd (2433) given by Mr. Scott of the

Survey is right, all these figures would be increased by 763 feet. The ascent over the Landí Kotál Pass is narrow, rugged, steep, and generally the most difficult part of the whole road. Guns could not be drawn here except by men, and then only after the improvement of the road; the descent is along a well-made road, and is not so difficult. Just beyond Alí Masjíd the road goes over a bed of projecting and slippery rock, which makes this portion extremely difficult for laden animals. The Kháibar can be turned by the Tátara road, which enters the hills about 9 miles north of Jamrúd (another branch entering 2½ miles nearer), and either joins the Kháibar road at Luadgai, or keeps the north of the range and goes to Dháka.

During the first Afghán war, the Kháibar was the scene of many skirmishes with the Afrídís, and of some disasters to our troops. Colonel Wade, with from 10,000 to 11,000 of all arms, including the Síkh contingent, moved from Jamrúd on the 22d July 1839 to Gagrí; here he halted a day and entrenched his position; on the 24th July, he again marched to Lálá Chína; on the 15th, he moved to the attack of Alí Masjíd, sending one column of 600 men and 2 guns, under Lieutenant Mackeson, to the right; and 11 companies of infantry, 1 6-pounder gun, and 1 howitzer to the left; while below a column was placed to watch the mouth of Shádi Bagádi gorge. Both columns drove the enemy before them, the right meeting with some opposition, and the left getting into a position to shell the fort. On the 26th all the enemy's outposts were driven in, and on the 27th they evacuated the fort. The enemy had 509 Jazáilchis, or musket men, and were supported by several hundred Kháibaris. The British loss was 22 killed and 158 wounded. After this there was no further opposition. A strong post was left in Alí Masjíd, and a detachment near Lálá Chína, to maintain communication with Pesháwar, and a post of irregulars under Lieutenant Mackeson was placed near Dháka. The post near Lálá Chína was attacked during the operations. It was garrisoned by Yusafzái auxiliaries, whose numbers had been thinned, and the survivors were worn down by continued sickness, when the Kháibarís, estimated at 6000 strong, attacked their breastwork. They were long kept at bay, but the marauders were animated by the love of plunder, and persevered in their attacks. They were aware that the devoted garrison had recently received their arrears of pay, and that a sum of Rs. 12,000 was buried on the spot, which was an old Kháibarí haunt. Finally, they carried the weak field-work, and mercilessly put to the sword 400 of its defenders. They did not keep possession of it, but, after repeating their vain attempts on Alí Masjíd and Captain Ferris' posts in the valley, retired to their mountains. When Jalálábád was blockaded, it was proposed to send a force through the Kháibar to its relief, and, as a preliminary measure, Lieutenant-Colonel Moseley was

detached on 15th January 1842 to occupy Alí Masjíd with two regiments of Native Infantry. He marched on the night of the 15th January, and reached the place with little opposition the next morning. Through some mismanagement, however, only a portion of the provisions requisite for the two regiments accompanied them. It became necessary, therefore, to forward the residue without delay; and to this end, and with the purpose of afterwards moving upon Jalálabád, Brigadier Wilde advanced from Jamrúd with the remaining two regiments (the 60th and 30th Native Infantry) and 4 Síkh guns. But the appearance of Colonel Moseley's detachment had alarmed the Afrídís, who now rose, and, closing the pass, prepared to resist Brigadier Wilde's entrance. The Brigadier, nevertheless, pushed onwards on the 19th January, and encountered the enemy at the mouth of the pass; but, owing to the uselessness of the Síkh guns, and the inadequacy of his force with so powerful a body of the enemy advantageously placed in his front, his attempt to reach Alí Masjíd totally failed. The situation of Lieutenant-Colonel Moseley, shut up in Alí Masjíd with scarcely any provisions, now became desperate, and he was forced to abandon Alí Masjíd, and cut his way back to Jamrúd.

The next occasion on which the Kháibar Pass was used as a great military road was when General Pollock advanced on the 6th April 1842. On his return to India, the British army marched through the Kháibar in three divisions. The first, under General Pollock, passed through with no loss. The second, under General M'Caskill, was not equally fortunate; one brigade being overtaken by night, left two mountain-train guns with the rear-guard, which was suddenly attacked, and the guns taken, though they were recovered next day. The rear-guard of General Nott's force was also attacked between Landí Khána and Lálábágh, and again on leaving Alí Masjíd.

With regard to the Afghán campaigns of 1878-1880, it must suffice to mention the brilliant capture of Alí Masjíd by the British troops on the second day after the declaration of war, the successful passage of the Kháibar by Sir Samuel Browne's force, and the unopposed occupation, first of Dháka at the eastern mouth of the pass, and then of Jalálábád in the plains beyond. The treaty of Gandamak, in May 1879, left the Kháibar tribes for the future under British control.

This treaty was considered as practically cancelled by the abdication of the Amír Yákub, who signed it; and the British Government reserves the right to make such readjustments on the frontier as may be needful. Acting on this principle, the British troops have been withdrawn from the Kháibar, leaving that and the Michni Pass in charge of the Afrídís and other local tribes,—on the proviso that the pass is always kept open for the British and for trade, but closed to all regular troops, Afghán or otherwise, from the west.

Khair.—Western *tahsíl* of Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces; stretching inland from the east bank of the Jumna, and irrigated by distributaries from the Ganges Canal. Area, 406 square miles, of which 293 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 169,459 persons; land revenue, £35,444; total government revenue, £39,017; rental paid by cultivators, £62,131; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 8⅔d.

Khair.—Town in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the above *tahsíl.* Pop. (1872), 4850 persons. Situated on the road to the Jumna; distant from Alígarh 14 miles north-west. *Tahsíli*, police station, post office, school, *munsífi.* During the Mutiny of 1857, the Chauháns occupied Khair, under Ráo Bhúpál Sinh, who set himself up as Rájá. On the 1st of June, an expedition of the Agra volunteers, under Mr. Watson, surrounded the town, and captured the rebel leader, who was hanged by order of a court-martial. Later in the month, the Chauháns called in the Játs, attacked the town, and plundered or destroyed the Government buildings and the houses of the wealthy Mahájans and Banias. Local revenue in 1873, £96.

Khairábád.—*Parganá* in Sitápur *tahsíl*, Sítápur District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Hargám *parganá;* on the east by the Gon river; and on the south and west by the Saráyan river, the two streams meeting at the southern extremity of the *parganá*, which forms their *doáb.* Originally in the possession of the Pásis, who were ousted by the Bais and Káyasths; but their descendants still hold many villages in the *parganá.* Constituted a *parganá* by Todar Mall in the reign of Akbar. Soil fertile; country well wooded and watered; the Gon and the Saráyan afford water communication, except during the dry months. Area, 127⅔ square miles, or 81,637 acres; of which 75⅔ square miles, or 47,815 acres, are cultivated, and 40 square miles, or 25,678 acres, are waste cultivable. Incidence of Government land revenue, 3s. 1⅛d. per acre of cultivated area, 2s. 2¼d. per acre of assessed area, and 1s. 8½d. per acre of total area. Rents are paid almost entirely in kind. Pop. (according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent transfers), Hindus, 48,934; Musalmáns, 14,794; total, 63,728, viz. 34,600 males and 29,128 females. The town of KHAIRABAD and the cantonment of SITAPUR are situated in the *parganá.* Large markets are held in three other villages. Six numerously attended Hindu fairs and three Musalmán festivals are held, at all of which a brisk trade is carried on. Three military camping stations, at Saráyan on the Biswán road, at Thompsonganj, and at Jalálpur on the Lucknow road.

Khairábád.—Principal town of Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 5 miles south-east of Sítápur, the civil station and cantonment of the District, in lat. 27° 31′ 30″ N., and long. 80° 47′ 35″ E. The town is

said to have been founded by one Khaira, a Pási, in the first year of the 11th century, and to have been subsequently taken possession of by a Káyasth family. In after years, many rent-free grants of portions of its site were made to Musalmáns, who came in great numbers in the reigns of Bábar and Akbar, but these grants were all afterwards resumed by the Nawáb of Oudh about 1810. Khairábád is the fifth largest town in Oudh, containing a population (1869) of 15,677, Hindus and Musalmáns being in about equal proportions. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £401; expenditure, £380; incidence of taxation, 6d. per head of population within municipal limits. The town contains 40 mosques and 30 Hindu temples, besides a beautiful set of holy Muhammadan buildings, erected some forty years ago. These consist of a Kadam Rásul, an Imámbára, and mosques with intervening courtyards, all surrounded by a handsome wall. The public buildings consist of a police station, school, registration office, post office, *saráis*, etc. Four *bázárs* and markets are held daily. Large fair held in January, lasting ten days, and attended by an average of 60,000 persons. A second fair is held at the *Dasahára* festival, attended by about 15,000 persons. Annual value of *bázár* sales, about £34,000.

Khairábád.—River in Bákarganj District, Bengal. An offshoot of the Barisál river at Ránihát, flowing east of Bákarganj town to Angariáhát, a distance of 22 miles; whence it continues as the Nahália river, running a tortuous course, sometimes south-east and sometimes south-west, for 14 miles, as far as Patuákháli; after which it is called the Guláchipá or Rabnábád river, and flows a southerly course for 20 miles till it falls into the Bay of Bengal, just north of the Rabnábád islands. A branch of this river, called in different parts of its course the Patuákháli, Beghái, and Buriswar, falls into the sea under the latter name.

Khairagarh. — South-western *tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a spur of British territory, almost surrounded by the Native States of Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) and Dholpur, and largely intersected by wild ravines. Area, 220 square miles, of which 149 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 93,283; land revenue, £16,341; total Government revenue, £18,137; rental paid by cultivators, £32,170; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. $3\frac{7}{8}$d.

Khairagarh.—Native State attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 122,264, of whom 75,990 are Hindus, residing in 501 villages and 30,650 houses, on an area of 940 square miles, mostly lying in the richest part of the Chhatísgarh plain. The ruling family, which is Ráj-Gond, and descended from the royal family of Garha Mandla, originally held only the small forest tract known as Kholwá, below the Sáletekrí range; but they obtained extensive grants in 1818,

both from the Mandla princes and from the Marhattá rulers of Nágpur. The last chief, Lál Fateh Sinh, was deposed, and died in 1874; and at present (1878) the State is under direct British management. During the year 1876-77, the income amounted to £12,259, of which £11,261 was derived from land revenue, according to a summary settlement concluded in 1874; and the expenditure to £9433, of which £3149 was devoted to the chief's family. The tribute was fixed at £4700. Cotton, wheat, and gram constitute the chief products; iron ore is also found in parts. Two of the principal passes through the Sáletekrí Hills between Chhatísgarh and Nágpur lie in Khairagarh; but a different line has been adopted for the Great Eastern Road. All the roads leading to the great grain mart of DONGARGARH, near which will be the terminus of the Chhatísgarh Railway, can at small cost be made good cold-weather routes; and a dispensary will shortly be opened. Khairagarh, the chief town, is at the junction of the Am and the Píparía, 45 miles west by north from Ráipur. Lat. 21° 25′ 30″ N., long. 81° 2′ E.

Khairasra.—One of the petty States of Hállár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 13 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue (1876), £1900. Tribute of £236 is paid to the British Government, and £35 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Khairi.—Small estate in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; 8 miles north of Sákoli, on the Great Eastern Road, comprising 4 villages, on an area of 8848 acres, of which 680 are cultivated. The forests yield abundance of inferior timber. The chief is a Kunbí, and the population chiefly Gond.

Khairigarh.—*Parganá* in Nighásan *tahsíl*, Kheri District, Oudh; situated between the Mohán and Sarju rivers, which border it on the north and south respectively; bounded on the east by the Kauriála river, and on the west by Nepál State. The largest *parganá* in the District, being 47 miles from east to west and 12 from north to south. Area, 425 square miles, of which 263 miles are covered with State forests. Pop. (1869), 33,046, of whom only 2063 are Muhammadans. Ahírs form the principal Hindu caste, numbering 5500, or 16 per cent. of the population. The Bráhmans number 840; Kshattriyas, 1400, principally Bais and Paháriyás; Kurmís, 3300. Crops, principally rice and barley. The only landed proprietor in the *parganá* is the Rájá of Khairigarh, who owns 67 out of the 70 villages, the remaining 3 being the property of Government. Government land revenue, £4963. The *parganá* is said to derive its name from the *khair* jungle, found here in great quantities.

The early history of the *parganá* is lost in obscurity. It has been for many centuries the huge forest which it now appears. In the reign of Firoz-ud-dín Tughlak, 1351-1388 A.D., it is related that the

Emperor established a chain of forts along the north bank of the river Sarju, to repel marauding expeditions on the part of the mountaineers of Dhoti and Garhwál. Tradition states that the Emperor, with his son, ascended the tallest tower of the great Khairigarh fort. He cast his eyes over the boundless sea of jungle, in which no house roof, no temple spire, no smoke, nor any other sign of human habitation appeared, and was so appalled by the vast solitude, that he for ever abandoned the place at which he had spent two years in building and hunting. The fort was abandoned for centuries. Khairigarh first reappears in deeds granted to the *kanúngo* family, which held office both in Khairigarh and Kheri. A deed signed by Akbar (1556-1605 A.D.) recites that Ahbaran, an Ahír of Khairigarh, had usurped dominion and was oppressing the people; and it directs the destruction of this chieftain, whose headquarters were at Kundanpur, near Khairigarh. The landholders of the *parganá* at that time were Báchhils, Bisens, Bais, and Kurmís. The Báchhils were succeeded by the Rájpásís, and these latter, in their turn, were ousted by the Loháni Banjáras in the reign of Jahángír. Ráo Rám Sinh was the Banjára chief at the beginning of the present century. He was a turbulent man, and his exactions led to a rebellion on the part of his own people, and his defeat in 1800. In the following year, Khairigarh came into the hands of the British, being part of the territories ceded by the Nawáb Wazír. It remained in their possession till 1816, when it was handed over to Oudh in exchange for a part of Jaunpur. In 1809, the English sent a force to punish the Rájá for his cruelty and exactions. He was taken prisoner and carried to Bareilly, where he died. His successor, in 1830, was ousted by the Surajbans Kshattriyas, who had an ancient claim to the land, and to which tribe the present Rájá belongs. Khairigarh finally came into British possession on the annexation of Oudh.

Khairigarh.—Chief town in above *parganá*, Kheri District, Oudh; situated on the left bank of the Suheli river, 110 miles north of Lucknow. Lat. 28° 20′ 35″ N., long. 80° 52′ 55″ E.; pop. (1869), 1135. Built by Alá-ud-dín Tughlak, in order to check the depredations of mountaineers from Nepál and Kumáun. Tieffenthaler, describing its condition eighty years ago, states it to be a fortified place, worthy of note as well on account of its excellent construction as of its size, being 4 or 5 miles in circuit. The defences are built of huge blocks of stone below, and above of bricks of unusual size; but it now lies waste, and the site is infested with tigers and other wild beasts. The town is 2 miles north-east of the great fort, the intervening space being overgrown with trees and grassy jungle.

Khairi-Murat.—Mountain range in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab; midway between the Lohán river and the Chitta Pahár. Rises about 30 miles from the Indus, and runs eastward for some 24 miles, a dreary ridge

of barren limestone and sandstone rock. Lat. 33° 28′ N., long. 72° 49′ 30″ E. North of the range lies a plateau intersected by ravines; while southward a waste of gorges and dreary hillocks extends in a belt for a distance of 5 miles, till it dips into the fertile valley of the Lohán, one of the richest tracts in Ráwal Pindi District. The Khairi-Murat was formerly covered with jungle forest, but is now completely destitute of vegetation.

Khairpur.—Native State in Sind, also known as the territories of His Highness the Mír Alí Murád Khán Tálpur; lying between 26° 10′ and 27° 46′ N. lat., and between 68° 14′ and 70° 13′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Shikárpur District; on the east by Jáisalmír (Jeysulmere) State; on the south by Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District; and on the west by the river Indus. Its greatest length from east to west may be calculated at 120 miles, and its breadth from north to south at 70 miles; area, according to Survey measurement, 6109 square miles; pop. (1872), 130,350 persons.

Physical Aspects.—Like other parts of Sind, Khairpur consists of a great alluvial plain, the part bordering directly upon the Indus being very rich and fertile, though much of it is at the present time converted into *moháris*, or hunting-grounds. With the exception of the fertile strip watered by the Indus and the Eastern Nára (a canal which follows an old bed of the Indus), the remainder of the area is a continuous series of sandhill ridges covered with a stunted brushwood, where cultivation is altogether impossible. The country generally is exceedingly arid, sterile, and desolate in aspect. In the northern portion of the State is a small ridge of limestone hills, being a continuation of the low range known as the Ghar, which runs southward from Rohri for a distance of about 40 miles. On the top of the range are found oyster, cockle, and numerous other kinds of marine shells. On a western outlying spur of this ridge is situated the fort of DIJI.

Khairpur is watered by five canals, drawn off from the Indus river, as well as by the Eastern Nára. The largest and most important of these canals is the Mírwah; and it is upon the land watered by this stream and its branches that much of the indigo grown in the State is produced. There are several cuts from the Mírwah canal, which extend to the valleys near the sandhills, where the soil is apparently fertile, and largely cultivated on the occurrence of a good rainfall. No separate canal department exists under the Mír's rule; but when the clearing out of silt becomes necessary, it is generally done by the cultivators themselves, who receive for this work about a pound of flour per diem. The Eastern Nára, which irrigates a portion of the State, is a petty stream, except during the rains, when it spreads out into wide sheets of water; in the dry season it is but a series of sluggish pools. The belt of land through which this stream flows is composed of rich

alluvial soil, at present almost wholly uncultivated, but capable of producing excellent crops.

The soil of Khairpur, especially in the strip adjoining the Indus, is very productive. The tract lying between the Mírwah Canal and the Indus is the richest part of the State, but cultivation is even there by no means so extensive as it might be. In the desert portion of Khairpur are pits of *natron*—an impure sesqui-carbonate of soda, always containing sulphate of soda and chloride of sodium. It is generally obtained by means of evaporation. The *natron* pits are a source of income to the Mír, as many as a thousand camel-loads of this substance being annually exported to Northern and Central India, and also to the seaboard, each camel-load being taxed at 5s.

The wild animals found in Khairpur are the tiger, lynx, hyæna, wolf, jackal, fox, wild hog, deer, hare, and antelope. The birds and water-fowl are those common to Sind generally, such as bustard, wild geese, snipe, partridges (both black and grey), and various kinds of wild duck (which arrive in the cold season). The reptiles are also the same as those common to the Province, and snakes abound as in other parts of Sind. The domestic animals comprise the camel, horse, buffalo, bullock, sheep, goat, mule, and donkey.

History.—The present chief of Khairpur belongs to a Baluchí family called Tálpur; and, previous to the accession of this family, on the fall of the Kalhorá dynasty of Sind in 1783, the history of Khairpur belongs to the general history of Sind. In that year Mír Fateh Alí Khán Tálpur established himself as *Rais* or ruler of Sind; and subsequently his nephew Mír Sohráb Khán Tálpur, with two sons, named Mír Rustam and Alí Murád, established the Khairpur branch of the Tálpur rulers of Sind. The dominions of Mír Sohráb Khán were at first confined to the town of Khairpur and a small adjacent tract of country; but by conquest and intrigue he managed to enlarge them, until they extended to Sabzalkot and Kashmor on the north, to the Jáisalmír Desert on the east, and to the borders of Kachh Gandáva on the west. About the year 1813, during the troubles in Kábul incidental to the establishment of the Bárakzái dynasty, the Mírs were able to refuse the further payment of the tribute which up to that date had been somewhat irregularly paid to the rulers of Afghánistán. Two years earlier than this, in 1811, Mír Sohráb had abdicated in favour of his son Mír Rustam; but he appears to have endeavoured to modify this arrangement subsequently; and ultimately the jealousy between the two brothers, Mír Rustam and Alí Murád, was one of the factors in the crisis that called in the intervention of the British power. In 1832 the individuality of the Khairpur State, as separate from the dominions of the various other Tálpur Mírs in Sind, was recognised by the British Government in a treaty, under

which the use of the river Indus and the roads of Sind were secured. When the first Kábul expedition was decided on, the Sind Mírs were required to assist the passage of the British through their territories, and allow of the occupation of Shikárpur; most of the princes showed great disinclination to comply with these demands. But in Khairpur, Alí Murád, who gradually succeeded in establishing his hold on the *raisat*, or chiefship, cordially supported the British policy; and the result was that, after the battles of Miani and Daba had put the whole of Sind at the disposal of the British Government, Khairpur was the only state in that province that was allowed to retain its political existence under the protection of the Paramount Power. In 1866 a *sanad* was granted to the present Chief, under which the British Government promised to recognise any succession to the Chiefship that might be in accordance with Muhammadan law. The present ruler of Khairpur, His Highness Mír Alí Murád Khán, mentioned above as the youngest son of Mír Sohráb Khán Tálpur, was born in the year 1815. He is entitled to a salute of 15 guns.

Population.—The population of Khairpur, according to the Census of 1872, is returned at 130,350 persons, or 21 to the square mile. Of these, the proportion of Musalmáns and Hindus is not known. The Muhammadans mostly belong to the Rájur tribe, which is again subdivided into numerous families. The Hindu inhabitants are principally Soda Thákurs, or Rájputs, who inhabit the extreme eastern part of the State. They are a well-built and sturdy race, nomadic in their habits, and fond of a life of freedom. Their only wealth consists in their herds of camels, oxen, sheep, and goats. Their chief food is butter-milk or camel's milk, and the coarsest grain. The Sindí language is generally used, and also a kind of corrupt Hindustání.

Trade and Manufactures, etc.—The value of the articles annually exported from Khairpur to British Sind and the Native State of Jáisalmír has been approximately estimated at about 5¼ *lákhs* of rupees (£52,500), and that of the imported articles at somewhat more than 2½ *lákhs* (£25,000). The principal exports are indigo, wool, cotton, and grain. The imports are rice, wheat, barley, sugar, and piece-goods. The chief manufactures are cotton fabrics, such as woven sheets and coloured cloth; silk fabrics, silver-ware of different kinds, lacquered wood-work, boots, shoes, horse trappings, swords, matchlocks, and earthen pottery for home consumption. A small quantity of salt and saltpetre is also manufactured. The lines of communication in the State are very few. Excepting the main trunk road from Haidarábád to Rohri, which passes through Khairpur at a distance of about 20 miles from the Indus, and another road connecting the same towns by a somewhat more direct route, there are no made roads in Mír Alí Murád's territory. The electric telegraph runs along

the trunk road. The ferries are chiefly on the Indus, are six in number, and have each one boat attached to them. They are—(1) Bindu, (2) Alípur, (3) Saga, (4) Rafidír, (5) Agro, (6) Núrpur.

Agriculture.—The principal grains grown in the State are *joár* (Holcus sorghum), *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), wheat, gram, various pulses, and cotton. Indigo is also largely cultivated. The fruit-trees are the mango (Mangifera indica), mulberry, apple, pomegranate, date, and others. The forest trees are the *pipal* (Ficus religiosa), *ním* (Azadirachta indica), *ber* (Zizyphus jujuba), *sira*, *tali*, *bahan*, and *kandi*. The bush jungle consists principally of tamarisk; reed grasses are abundant. There is good timber in the game preserves bordering on the Indus. The *kandi* tree grows luxuriantly in the valleys.

Administration.—The total revenue of Khairpur, which is collected not in cash but in kind, the Mír receiving one-third of the produce, is estimated to amount to £54,240. From this the sum of £17,540 must be deducted for *jágírs* or alienations. The *jágírdárs* are mostly the Mír's own sons and the ladies of his family.

There are only two courts of justice in the State; one permanent, and held at the town of Khairpur; the other is of an itinerant nature, always accompanying the Mír wherever he may be. A Hindu officer presides over the former, and two Muhammadan Maulvís over the latter. All sentences passed by these courts require the Mír's confirmation before they can be carried out. The punishments resorted to in the case of convicted persons are generally fine and flogging, with or without imprisonment. The punishment of death is seldom inflicted, but His Highness has the power of life and death throughout his dominions. In civil cases the plaintiff is required to give to the State one-fourth of his claim as costs and expenses; and it is, no doubt, on this account that but few suits are brought in the Mír's courts, the litigating parties preferring to have them settled by means of *panchdyats*, or friendly arbitration. There are only a few private schools in Khairpur. In these, Persian is taught to a slight extent by Múllas, who, for the instruction they afford, receive 1 pice (½d.) weekly from the parents of each child.

Climate, Medical Aspects, etc.—The climate of Khairpur is represented to be agreeable during about four months of the year, but fiercely hot during the remaining eight. The fall of rain is slight, but dust storms are frequent, and have the effect of cooling the atmosphere to some extent. The diseases common to the country are fevers, intermittent and remittent, ophthalmia, and several cutaneous affections. Organic affections of the liver are said to be rare.

Khairpur.—Chief town of Khairpur State, Sind; situated on the Mírwah Canal, about 15 miles east of the river Indus. Lat. 27° 31′ 30″ N., long. 68° 48′ 30″ E. The town, which is irregularly built,

consists of a collection of mud hovels, intermingled with a few houses of a better description. It is very filthy, and, owing to the excessive heat of the place, and the deleterious influence of the stagnant marshes around it, decidedly unhealthy. The palace, covered with gaudy lacquered tiles of various hues, is situate in the midst of the *bázár*, and presents but few points worthy of notice. Outside the town still stand the tombs of two Muhammadan saints—Pír Ruhan Ziá-ud-dín and Háji Jafiar Sháhid. The population, consisting of Muhammadans and Hindus, the former of whom greatly predominate in number, is estimated by some at from 4000 to 5000 persons, but by others as high as 10,000; recently (1875) it was returned at 7275. During the flourishing period of the Tálpur dynasty, Khairpur is said to have possessed not less than 15,000 inhabitants, but the place is now fast hastening to ruin and decay. The trade of Khairpur is principally in indigo, grain (*joár* and *bájra*), and oil-seeds, which form the chief articles of export; the imports being piece-goods, silk, cotton, wool, metals, etc. The manufactures comprise the weaving and dyeing of cloths of various kinds, goldsmith's work, and the making of fire-arms, swords, etc. On the present site of the town of Khairpur, which owes its rise to Mír Sohráb Khán Tálpur, there stood, prior to the year 1787, the village of Boira, and the *zamíndárí* or estate of the Phulpotras. It was selected as the residence of the chief Mírs of Northern Sind; and for some time during Tálpur rule, a British Resident was stationed here, in terms of the treaty of 20th April 1838, concluded between the British Government and the Mírs of Sind.

Khairpur.—Municipal town in Muzaffargarh District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 3539. Lat. 29° 20′ N., long. 70° 51′ E.; lies 6 miles south-west of Alípur, on a depressed site, below flood level from the Chenáb, and therefore surrounded by an embankment, which has to be kept up at a considerable outlay. Brisk trade with Sind; exports of wool, cotton, and grain; imports of cloth and sundries. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £276, or 3s. 4½d. per head of population (2589) within municipal limits.

Khairpur Dharki.—Government town in Rohri Deputy Collectorate, Shikárpur District, Sind; situated about 65 miles north-east of Rohri town. Lat. 28° 3′ N., long. 69° 44′ 30″ E. Headquarters of a *tappadár*, with a *musafirkhána* (travellers' rest-house); vernacular school; *thánά* police force of 7 men; and cattle pound. Connected by road with the towns of Ubauro, Rawati, Mírpur, and Raharki. Pop. (1872), 1602, consisting of 482 Muhammadans (mostly of the Dhar Málik, Kori, Muhána, Lohár, Dakhan, Daya, and Shaikh tribes) and 1120 Hindus (chiefly of the Bania caste). The trade of Khairpur Dharki is principally in grain, sugar, molasses, oil, and cloth. The Lohárs are noted for their handiwork in pots, pipe bowls, knives, razors, etc. The

Dhars, who were once the principal landowners in Ubauro *táluk*, are thus referred to by Lieutenant Lester, a former Deputy Collector in Sind, in his report (1852) on the Districts on the left bank of the Indus:—'The Dhars are a race of Musalmáns, originally Hindus, who emigrated from their native country of Tonk Jodah, near Delhi, under their chief, one Jodh Dhar, and settled in Ubauro. This migration took place about A.H. 551 (A.D. 1150). The Dhars took Ubauro by force of arms from the Odhánas, a Muhammadan race, who formerly possessed it, and Jodh Dhar became the acknowledged ruler of Ubauro. Alím Khán, the twelfth chief in succession from Jodh Dhar, was the first who surrendered his independence. He became subject to the kings of Delhi about A.D. 1634; and one of the first *sanads* is dated A.H. 1052 (A.D. 1626), by which one-half of the grain produce is allowed to the Dhar chief, and the other half taken by the Delhi Government. About A.D. 1795, the Tálpur chiefs, Mírs Sohráb and Rústam, wrested from the chief of Ubauro some of the west and south-west parts of that *parganá* near Sírhad, and called this acquired territory "Náo Khálsá." The Dhars were, however, allowed the *zamíndárí* of these lands. In 1817, the Tálpurs took Sabzalkot, two-thirds of which were appropriated to the Haidarábád Mírs, and one-third to Mír Rústam. The Tálpurs continued to encroach by degrees on the possessions of the Dhars in Ubauro, until one-half only remained in the possession of the latter. At length, on the death of Bhambú Khán, his son Abúl Khair, was only allowed an eighth share of the Government revenue, besides *zamíndárí*.' The town of Khairpur Dharki is comparatively modern, having been founded about 1787 by the grandfather of Jám Abul Khair Dhar, the present head of the Dhar tribe.

Khairpur Juso.—Village in Lárkána Deputy Collectorate, Shikárpur District, Sind; situated about 10 miles south-west of Lárgána town. Lat. 27° 31′ N., long. 68° 5′ E.; pop. (1872), 955, of whom 296 are Musalmáns and 659 Hindus. Headquarters station of a *tappadár;* police station, and *musafirkhána* (travellers' rest-house). No manufactures of any importance; local trade in *joár* and rice. A *jágír* village, held by Mír Bijar Khán Tálpur, a lineal descendant of the Mír Bijar, who was murdered by the Kalhora prince Abdul Nabi Khán. The *jágírdár* resides in a small fort in the village.

Khairpur Natheshláh.—Municipal village in Shikárpur District, Sind; situated 8 miles south of Mehar town. Lat. 27° 5′ N., long. 67° 46′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 1430, viz. 840 Musalmáns (belonging to the Sayyid and Sindi tribes) and 590 Hindus (chiefly Bráhmans and Lohános). Municipal revenue (1873-74), £57; expenditure, £35. Police station, Government school, and cattle pound. A *jágír* village, in the possession of Mír Muhammad Khán Tálpur.

Khajaulí.—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*thánú*) in

Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated on the river Dhaurí about 12 miles north-east of Madhubaní town, on the old road from Jáinagar to Mírzápur. Lat. 26° 26′ 30″ N., long. 85° 56′ 51″ E. Small bi-weekly market for the sale of grain and cloth.

Khajri.—A small chiefship in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; 6 miles north of Arjuni, on the Great Eastern Road; comprising only 2 villages, with an area of 4359 acres, of which 1600 are cultivated. Lat. 21° 8′ 30″ N., long. 80° 10′ E. The chief is a Halbá, and the population consists of Halbás and Gonds.

Khajuha.—Town in Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 3′ 10″ N., long. 80° 33′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 4094. Lies on the old Mughal road from Kora to Fatehpur, and formerly possessed considerable commercial importance. Chiefly noted at present for its manufacture of brass and copper wares, especially drinking and cooking vessels. The town retains some architectural remains of ancient grandeur, including the Bágh Badsháhi, a large enclosed garden with a *báradári* at the eastern end, and a considerable masonry tank; the gateway and walls of the handsome old *sarái*, through which ran the Mughal road to Agra and Etáwah; and a fine Hindu temple, dedicated to Siva, with a tank known as the Randon-ka-taláo.

Khajurá.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the Chitrá river 8 miles north of Jessor town. Lat. 23° 17′ N., long. 89° 17′ E. One of the principal seats of date-sugar manufacture in the District, the village taking its name from the date-tree (*khajur*).

Khajurahra.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 6 miles from Hardoi town. Pop. (1869), 3305, chiefly Chamár Gaurs, who have held the village since one of their ancestors drove out the Thatheras. Petty bi-weekly market.

Khajuráhu.—Ancient and decayed town in Chhatarpur State, Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces; famous for its magnificent architectural remains. Pop. about 900. Situated at the south-east corner of the Khajur Ságar, or Ninora Tál Lake, 34 miles south of Mahoba and 18 miles south-east of Chhatarpur, on the Ságar (Saugor) and Hamírpur road. Formerly the capital of the old Province of Jajhoti, which closely corresponded with the later Bundelkhand. Hiouen Thsang mentions it in the 7th century; and General Cunningham attributes to the same early date a single pillared temple called Ganthai, and a high mound which probably conceals the ruins of a Buddhist monastery. Numerous inscriptions of the Chandel kings have been discovered at various places in the neighbourhood. Upwards of twenty temples still stand in the town, and the ruins of at least as many more bear witness to its former greatness. On one alone, General Cunningham counted over eight hundred statues of half life-size, and eight sculptured elephants of like proportions. The inner shrine of this

edifice constituted in itself a splendid temple, and was crowded with figures. Captain Burt noticed seven large temples of exquisite carving, whose mechanical construction adapted them to last for almost indefinite periods. Most or all of these noble buildings must be referred to the great Chandel dynasty, who ruled at Khajuráhu, apparently from A.D. 841 to A.D. 1157. The modern village contains only about 160 houses.

Khakereru. — South-eastern *tahsíl* of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the north bank of the Ganges. Area, 202 square miles, of which 127 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 87,153; land revenue, £20,076; total Government revenue, £22,086; rental paid by cultivators, £31,589; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 1¼d.

Khalári. — Village in the centre of the Khalári estate, Ráipur District, Central Provinces; 13 miles from Ráipur town. The seat of a revenue manager under the Marhattás. The four ancient temples built of uncemented stones, were raised, the legend says, by giants of old. At the top of a lofty eminence, crowned by huge granite boulders, stands a small *chabútra*, dedicated to Khalári Devi, beneath which is yearly held a religious fair at the *Chaitra Punava* festival, about the end of March, attended by 3000 persons.

Khalílábád.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Basti District, North-Western Provinces, stretching northward from the bank of the Gogra (Ghagra). Area, 555 square miles, of which 366 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 307,717; land revenue, £25,462; total Government revenue, £28,014; rental paid by cultivators, £70,331; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 5¼d.

Khallikot.—A *zamíndárí* estate in Ganjám District, Madras; situated between 19° 24′ and 19° 48′ N. lat., and between 85° 59′ and 85° 14′ E. long.; containing 8209 houses and (1871) 42,589 inhabitants. Chief town, Khallikot; pop. (1871), 2753. One of the most ancient *zamíndárís* in the country, consisting of 238 villages, 53,701 acres in extent, and paying a *peshkash* or tribute of £1900. The country was occupied by British troops in 1769; and again, from 1771 to 1775, the Company's agents and troops were employed in maintaining order.

Khambháliá. — One of the petty States in North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 4 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £600. Tribute of £40 is paid to the British Government, and £11 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Khambháliá.—Town in Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 22° 12′ N., long. 69° 50′ E.; pop. (1872), 9067.

Khámgáon.—Town in Akola District, Berar. Lat. 20° 42′ 30″ N., long. 76° 37′ 30″ E.; pop. (1867), 9432. The largest cotton mart in the Province. The market was established about 1820 A.D., when a few traders opened shops and began to trade in *ghí*, raw thread, and a little

cotton. A branch State railway of 8 miles, opened in 1870, connects Khámgáon with the G. I. Peninsula Railway at Jalam. It is only worked about seven months in the year, from December to July, during the cotton season; in the remaining months a contractor is allowed to conduct a lorry service for the convenience of travellers. It is also made use of to a considerable extent for grain and other goods, being able to compete successfully with ordinary carts for light loads. Latterly considerable supplies of cotton have been diverted from Khámgáon to Shegáon, on the main line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. In good seasons, above 100,000 bullock-loads are brought into Khámgáon. The weekly market is held on Sunday. A branch of the Bombay Bank is open for business during the six busy months. To the east of the town is a large enclosed cotton market, having a small building in the centre which is used as an exchange room. The town is surrounded by low irregular hills, which are clothed with trees, and give it a picturesque character. There is a supply of good water from upwards of 400 public and private wells. The public buildings are—the Assistant Commissioner's court-house; a handsome *sarái;* travellers' bungalow; dispensary and post office; police station; large school-house; market shed. Of the private buildings, those erected by the European merchants are the most conspicuous; of these, the principal are the Berár Ginning Company's and the Mofussil Pressing Company's factories, which all possess steam machinery for full-pressing cotton. Several gardens in the town produce good fruits and vegetables. The Assistant Commissioner is judge of the Small Cause Court, and has a Magistrate's full powers; a *tahsíldár* is also stationed at Khámgáon, and there is a sub-treasury. Khámgáon is a municipality under Act IV. of 1873. In 1876-77, the municipal receipts were £1420; expenditure, £1188; incidence of taxation, 2s. 9½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Kha-moung-khyoung.—Revenue circle in Ramrí Island, Kyoukhpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 14 square miles. Pop. (1876), 1224; gross revenue, £300.

Khampti Hills.—A tract of country on the extreme eastern frontier of Assam, bordering on Lakhimpur District; occupied by the Khamptís, a hill tribe of Shan origin, akin to the Ahams. The original seat of this tribe appears to have been the hilly country at the sources of the Nawadi river, known as Bar-khamptí, which was visited by Captain Wilcox in 1826. About the middle of last century, owing to internal dissensions, a colony of Khamptís migrated into Assam and established themselves in the Division of Sadiya. Their chief assumed the title of Sadiyá Khoá Gosáin, and was recognised by the British Government. On his death, the Division of Sadiya was taken under British administration, and difficulties arose with the Khamptís. In

1839, they cut off the outpost at Sadiya, with its garrison of Sepoys and British commandant. This outbreak was sternly suppressed, and for several years the Khamptís led a hunted life. They have now resumed peaceful habits, and new colonies of their tribesmen from beyond the frontier have recently joined their settlements on the Tengápání and Noá Dihing rivers. According to the Census of 1872, the total nnmber of Khamptís in the settled portion of Lakhimpur District is 1562 souls. The Khamptís are far in advance of all the neighbouring tribes in knowledge, arts, and civilisation. They are Buddhists, and have regular establishments of priests, well versed in the mysteries of that religion. A large proportion of the laity can read and write in their own language. The priests carve with great taste in wood, bone, or ivory. The chiefs pride themselves upon their manual dexterity in working in metals, and in ornamenting their shields of buffalo or rhinoceros hide with gold and lac. The women are skilled in embroidery. The dress of both men and women is marked by simplicity and neatness.

Khanbaila.—Town in Baháwalpur State, Punjab; a place of some importance, near the left bank of the Panjnad. Lat. 29° 4′ N., long. 70° 52′ E. The neighbouring country, fertilized by the inundations, produces abundant crops of grain.

Khandánsa.—*Parganá* in Bíkápur *tahsíl*, Faizábád (Fyzabad) District, Oudh; situated along the north bank of the Gumti. It contains 128 villages, covering 116 square miles, of which 65 are cultivated. Pop. (1869), 70,905, viz. 66,698 Hindus and 4207 Muhammadans. Tradition states that about six hundred years ago, one Khánde, a Bhar chief, while on a pilgrimage to Ajodhya with his brothers, came to the neighbourhood of the present Khandánsa, and, finding it fertile and uninhabited, took possession of it and founded four villages—Khandánsa, Urwa, Bhakauli, and Dehli Girdhar—calling them after his own and his brothers' names. The *parganá* remained in the hands of the Bhars, until one Deo Rái, a Bisen of Manjhauli, happened to stop at Bhakauli on his way to bathe in the Ganges. During his stay, a quarrel arose between him and the Bhars, which ended in his putting them to the sword and taking possession of Bhakauli. Subsequently his descendants made themselves masters of Urwa and Khandánsa, with other villages in neighbouring *parganás*, of which, after the lapse of thirty-five generations, they are still *zamíndárs*.

Khandauli.—Village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated within a short distance of the Nepál frontier. Lat. 26° 26′ 58″ N., long. 86° 49′ 6″ E. Although the population is small (1396), a large bi-weekly *hát* or market is held here, and it is considered one of the most flourishing seats of trade in the north of the District. It exports large quantities of rice, oil-seeds, and *mahuá*, and in favourable seasons is a centre for import trade from Nepál.

Khandauli.—*Tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces; lying in the Doáb portion of the District, along the north bank of the Jumna, and much intersected by ravines. Area, 219 square miles, of which 158 are cultivated. Pop. (1872), 119,270; land revenue, £18,317; total Government revenue, £19,989; rental paid by cultivators, £34,004; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 5⅝d.

Khandesh.—A British District of the Bombay Presidency, lying between 20° 15′ and 22° N. lat., and between 73° 37′ and 76° 24′ E. long. Area, 10,162 square miles; population in 1872, 1,028,642 persons. Bounded on the north by the Sátpura Hills; on the east by Berar; on the south by the Sátmála or Ajanta Hills; on the south-west by the District of Násik; and on the west by Baroda territory and the petty State of Ságbára. Chief town, DHULIAN.

Physical Aspects.—The chief natural feature is the river Tápti, which, entering at the south-east corner of the District, flows in a north-westerly direction, dividing Khandesh into two unequal parts. Of these the larger lies towards the south, and is drained by the river Girna. Northwards beyond the alluvial plain, which contains some of the richest tracts in Khandesh, the land rises towards the SATPURA HILLS. In the centre and east, save for some low ranges of barren hills, the country is level, and has in general an arid, unfertile appearance. Towards the north and west, the plain rises into a difficult and rugged country, thickly wooded, and inhabited by tribes of Bhíls, who chiefly support themselves on the wild fruits of the forest and by the profits of wood-cutting. The drainage of the District centres in the Tápti, which receives thirteen principal tributaries in its course through Khandesh. None of the rivers are navigable, and the Tápti flows in too deep a bed to be made use of for irrigation. The District on the whole may be said to be fairly well supplied with surface water, for besides the rivers that flow during the whole year, the channels of many of the smaller streams are seldom entirely without water. In 1873-74, 29,070 wells, tanks, etc. were utilized for irrigation. The principal mountain ranges are—in the north, the Sátpura Hills, dividing the valleys of the Tápti and the Narbadá (Nerbudda); in the south-east, the Hati; in the south, the Sátmála or Ajanta range, separating Khandesh from the Deccan tableland; on the west, between Khandesh and Guzerat (Gujarát), is the northern extremity of the Sahyádri range. Khandesh is not rich in minerals. A large area is under forest; but the want of conservancy-rules in the past, and the destructive habits of the hill tribes, have robbed the jungles of most of their valuable timber. The forest revenue for the year 1876-77 was £5850. Wild beasts are numerous, comprising the tiger, leopard, hunting *chíta*, bear, lynx, wolf, bison, *sámbhar* deer, *nílgái*, spotted deer, antelope, ravine deer, and the four-horned deer. At the time of the introduction of British rule, and for many

years after, tigers and leopards were found in every part of the District. As late as 1858, tigers were numerous; but since then they have been very closely hunted, and during the ten years ending 1876 as many as 147 were killed. This, together with the spread of tillage, has driven the tiger almost entirely out of the plains into the Sátpura Hills in the north, the Hati and Sátmála ranges in the south-east and south, and the rough hilly country in the west.

History.—In the year 1802, Khandesh was ravaged by Holkar's army. For two seasons the country remained waste, the destruction and ruin bringing on a severe famine. In the years that followed, Khandesh was further impoverished by the greed and misrule of the Peshwás. The people leaving their peaceful callings, joined together in bands, wandering over the country, robbing and laying waste. In this state, in 1818, the District passed into British hands; order was soon established, and has never since been disturbed.

Population.—The Census returns of 1872 disclosed a total population of 1,028,642 persons, residing in 3447 villages and 229,899 houses; density of the population, 101 per square mile; houses per square mile, 22; persons per village, 298; persons per house, 4·47. Classified according to sex, there were 530,610 males and 498,032 females; proportion of males, 5158 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—199,743 boys, and 185,938 girls; total children, 385,681, or 37·49 per cent. of the population. Classified according to religion, there were 948,279 Hindus, 79,359 Musalmáns, 61 Pársís, 517 Christians, 36 Jews, 59 Síkhs, 5 members of the Bráhma Samáj, and 326 'others.'

Besides the Marhattá cultivators, who are Kunbís by caste, large numbers of Pardeshis and Rájputs have long been settled in the District. Another class of cultivators worthy of notice are the Gújars, the most industrious and well-to-do of the agricultural population. Their name, and their habit of speaking Gujaráthí among themselves, show that they are immigrants from Guzerat (Gujarát). But they must have lived for many years in Khandesh, as in many villages they hold hereditary grants of money and land. Most of the traders are foreigners —Banias from Márwár and Guzerat, and Bhátiás, late comers from Bombay. Wandering and aboriginal tribes form a large section of the population. The Bhíls, with a total strength of 122,092, or 11·87 per cent. of the whole, are the most important. Many of them are employed in police duties, and as village watchmen. But though most have settled down to peaceable ways, they show little skill in farming. Since the introduction of British rule into Khandesh, the efforts made, by kindly treatment and the offer of suitable employment, to win the Bhíls from a disorderly life, have been most successful. Banjáras or Lamánis, the pack-bullock carriers of former times, have suffered

much by the increased use of carts and by the introduction of the railway. A few are well-to-do traders. But most of them live apart from the villages, in bands or *tándás*, each with its own leader or *náik*. Forced to give up their old employment, they now live chiefly by grazing, and cutting grass and wood. The Musalmán section of the population is poor, and employed chiefly as messengers, policemen, and day-labourers.

Agriculture supports 510,301 persons, or 49·60 per cent. of the entire population. All varieties of soil—black, red, and light, from the richest to the poorest—are found. The agricultural stock in State villages amounted in 1875-76 to 90,942 ploughs, 65,166 carts, 339,020 bullocks, 240,735 cows, 141,263 buffaloes, 16,839 horses, 214,370 sheep and goats, and 7013 asses. The District contains many fine cows and bullocks, brought chiefly from Niphár and Berar. But the bulk of the village cattle are small and poor, reduced during the hot season to the most wretched condition. The horses also are small, and of little value. To improve the breed, Government has introduced stud horses and bulls. Certain tracts have, from their rugged character and unhealthy climate, been excluded from the Survey operations. Out of 3,453,549 acres, the total area of Government cultivable land, 2,415,638 acres, or 69·94 per cent., were taken up for cultivation in 1875-76. Of these, 197,283 acres, or 8·16 per cent., were fallow or under grass. Of the remaining 2,218,355 acres under actual cultivation (3026 acres of which were twice cropped), grain crops occupy 1,168,598 acres, or 52·68 per cent.; pulses occupied 126,840, or 5·72 per cent.; oil-seeds occupied 242,519, or 10·93 per cent.; fibres occupied 630,748, or 28·43 per cent., of which 629,667 acres were under cotton; and miscellaneous crops occupied 52,676 acres, or 2·37 per cent. Irrigation is more extensively practised in Khandesh than in the Deccan and Southern Marhattá country. The principal agricultural products exported are wheat, gram, linseed, sesamum, and cotton. Millet is retained for local consumption, and forms the staple article of food. Indigo and opium, once important products, are now no longer grown. Thirty years ago, the poppy was a favourite crop; but in 1853, the Khandesh opium factory was closed, and the further cultivation of the poppy forbidden. On the other hand, the area under linseed and cotton has increased from year to year. Two descriptions of foreign cotton, Dhárwár and Hinganghát, have been successfully introduced. Cotton is seldom grown oftener than once in three years in the same field, whether of black or light soil, the intermediate crops being wheat and Indian millet. A Government farm has been established at Bhadgáon. Almost every year is marked by some partial failure of the crops. The District is liable to floods, the rivers overflowing the country for a considerable distance from their banks. The most severe famine on record is that of 1802, when grain sold at

three pounds per rupee. Great numbers of people died, and large tracts were left waste and deserted. Scarcity also occurred in 1824, 1832, 1845, and 1876-77.

Industries.—The Trunk Road from Bombay to Agra passes through the District, and of late years roads have been made along all the chief lines of traffic. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway runs for 124 miles through the District from east to west. The chief exports are food grains, oil-seeds, butter, indigo, wax, and honey. The chief imports—salt, spices, metal, piece-goods, yarn, and sugar. The most important article of trade is cotton. There are ten steam cotton presses, and one steam factory for spinning and weaving cotton. Of late years, many Bombay mercantile houses have established agencies in Khandesh; and towards the east, in the rich Tápti valley, Jalgáon and Bhusáwal are rising into centres of an important trade. Among declining industries may be noticed the manufacture of coarse paper, the spinning of yarn by Mhár women, the handloom weaving of coarse cotton cloth, and the manufacture of wax bangles. The internal trade is carried on by means of weekly markets, and a succession of fairs and religious feasts. The rates of interest vary from 9 to 24 per cent. per annum, rising in some cases as high as 36 per cent. Labourers earn 5½d. a day; bricklayers and carpenters, 1s. 3½d. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were, for a rupee (2s.)—wheat, 34 lbs.; *joár*, 58 lbs.; rice, 22 lbs.; *dál* (split peas), 32 lbs.

Administration. — The total revenue raised in 1876-77, under all heads—imperial, local, and municipal—amounted to £422,291, showing an incidence of taxation per head of 8s. 2½d. The land tax forms the principal source of revenue, amounting to £303,706. Other important items are stamps and excise. The District local funds, created since 1863, for works of public utility and rural education, yielded a total sum of £29,169. There are 18 municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 127,689 persons; total municipal revenue, £7835, the incidence of taxation varying from 3d. to 2s. 9½d. per head. The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 8 Assistants, of whom 5 are covenanted civilians. For the settlement of civil disputes, there are 11 courts; the number of suits decided in 1876 was 20,350. The total strength of the regular police for the protection of person and property consisted of 1772 officers and men, being 1 policeman to every 621 of the population. The total cost was £26,919, equal to 2s. 3d. per square mile of area and 6¼d. per head of population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 3043, being 1 to every 338 of the population. Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855-56, there were only 7 schools, attended by 715 pupils. In 1876-77, there were 272 schools, attended by 16,249 pupils, or, on an average, 1 school

for every $9\frac{1}{2}$ inhabited villages. There is one library, and two vernacular newspapers were published in 1876-77.

Medical Aspects.—The average rainfall during the five years ending 1875-76 was 25 inches a year. The prevailing diseases are fever and skin affections. Nine dispensaries afforded medical relief, in 1876-77, to 829 in-door and 43,003 out-door patients, and 33,817 persons were vaccinated.

Khandgiri.—Hill in Purí District, Orissa; situated about 12 miles west of the road from Cuttack to Purí, and 5 miles east of Bhuvaneswar. Lat. 20° 16′ N., long. 85° 50′ E. Twin sandstone hills, Khandgiri and Udáyagiri, rise abruptly out of the jungle, separated by a narrow gorge, each of which is honeycombed into caves and temples cut out of the rock. These cave dwellings are believed to form the very earliest memorials of Buddhism in India. They are of various ages, and of different degrees of architecture. The oldest of them consist of a single cell, little larger than a dog-kennel, cut in the face of scarcely accessible precipices, and with no signs of even the primitive carpentry architecture. Others of a somewhat later date are shaped into strangely distorted resemblances of animals. One has from time immemorial been known as the Snake Cave, another as the Elephant Cave, a third as the Tiger Cave. This last stands out from the rock in the form of a monstrous wild beast's jaw, with nose and eyes above, and teeth overhanging the entrance to the cell. Such cells in their turn give way to more comfortable excavations, shaded by pillared verandahs, and lighted by several doors, which again are succeeded by others still more elaborate. Of the last, the most important is a two-storied monastery, known as the Rání-núr or Queen's Palace, highly sculptured in bas-relief. These sandstone caves, as a whole, represent ten centuries of human existence, or from 500 B.C. to 500 A.D. The oldest are on UDAYAGIRI HILL, the more modern ones being on KHANDGIRI, whose summit is crowned by a Jain temple erected by the Marhattás at the end of the last century.

Khandgosh.—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*thána*) in Bardwán District, Bengal; situated on the road from Bardwán to Sonámukhi and Bánkurá. Lat. 23° 12′ 30″ N., long. 87° 44′ 20″ E.

Khandia.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £294. Tribute of £80 is paid to the British Government, and £8 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Khandpára.—Native State in Orissa, lying between lat. 20° 11′ 15″ and 20° 25′ N., and long. 85° 1′ and 85° 24′ 40″ E. Bounded on the north by the Mahánadi river, which separates it from Narsinhpur and Baramba; on the east by Bánki and Purí District; on the south by Purí and Nayágarh; and on the west by Daspallá. The State

originally formed part of Nayágarh, and was separated from it about 200 years ago by a brother of the Nayágarh Rájá, who established his independence. The present chief, a Rájput by caste, is the eighth in descent from the founder. The country forms a very valuable territory, and is one of the best cultivated of the Orissa States. Fine *sál* timber abounds in the hilly parts of the State, and magnificent banian and mango trees stud the plain. It is intersected by the Kuariá and Dauka rivers, small tributaries of the Mahánadi. Area, 244 square miles, with 321 villages and 12,109 houses. Pop. (1872), according to religion—Hindus, 57,007, or 93·6 per cent.; Muhammadans, 38, or ·1 per cent.; 'others,' 3832, or 6·3 per cent.; total, 60,877, viz. males, 30,234, and females, 30,643. Proportion of males, 49·7 per cent.; density of population, 249 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·31; persons per square mile, 190; houses per square mile, 50; persons per house, 5. Classified according to race—aboriginal tribes, 3561, or 5·9 per cent., mainly composed of Kandhs (1596) and Savars (1126); semi-Hinduized aborigines, 6438, or 10·6 per cent., consisting principally of Páns (3577), Mihtárs (1547), and Kandáras (1064); Hindu castes, 50,840, or 83·5 per cent.; Muhammadans, 38. The largest village and principal seat of trade is Kántilo, on the banks of the Mahánadi, lat. 20° 21′ 46″ N., long. 85° 14′ 20″ E.; pop. (1872), 5386. Five other villages also contain upwards of 100 houses—viz. Khandpára, the capital of the State, and residence of the Rájá, lat. 20° 15′ 50″ N., long. 85° 12′ 51″ E., 680 houses; Biengoniá, lat. 20° 15′ 8″ N., long. 85° 16′ E., 211 houses; Fatehgarh, lat. 20° 17′ 37″ N., long. 85° 22′ 32″ E., 158 houses; Banmalipur, lat. 20° 16′ 14″ N., long. 85° 15′ 12″ E., 130 houses; Nemápol, lat. 20′ 16′ 10″ N., long. 85° 16′ 14″ E. Estimated annual revenue of the chief, £2258; tribute, £421.

Khandtarn.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 40′ 15″ N., long. 85° 5′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 6207.

Khandwa.—The eastern *tahsíl* or revenue Subdivision in Nimár District, Central Provinces; situated between 21° 32′ and 22° 13′ N. lat., and between 76° 6′ 30″ and 77° 1′ E. long. Pop. (1872), 109,622, residing in 344 townships or villages and 20,613 houses, on an area of 1553 square miles.

Khandwa.—Headquarters and civil station of Nimár District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 50′ N., long. 76° 23′ E.; pop. (1877), 14,119. Khandwa is perhaps the most advancing town in the Central Provinces. It has a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, where the whole traffic of Central India towards Bombay meets the line. Thus it has entirely superseded BURHANPUR, the ancient centre of trade between Málwá, the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, and the Deccan. Extensive barracks have been built for the relays of troops

who pass through in the cold season, and also a good travellers' bungalow with a spacious *sarái* or native rest-house, near the railway station. The Arabian geographer, Al Birúní (*circa* 1000 A.D.), mentions Khandwa; and a century later, it was a great seat of Jain worship. The mound on which the town stands has supplied many finely carved pillars, cornices, and other remains of the old Jain buildings, which have been built into Bráhmanical temples, the walls of the Marhattá fort, and other structures; besides forming materials for the Sivaite temples surrounding the four *kunds* or water reservoirs, one of which is on each side of the town, that on the west side bearing the date A.D. 1132. Ferishta describes Khandwa as the seat of a local governor of the Ghorí kingdom of Málwá in 1516. The town was burnt by Yaswant Ráo Holkar in 1802, and again partially by Tántiá Topí in 1858. The civil station, 2 miles east of the town, contains a court-house, circuit-house, and church. The road to Indore is in good repair.

Khangarh. — Municipal town in Muzaffargarh District, Punjab; situated about 2 miles from the present bed of the Chenáb, and 11 miles south of Muzaffargarh. Lat. 29° 55′ N., long. 71° 12′ E.; pop. (1868), 4387. Headquarters of a police subdivision, and originally chosen as the civil station of the District; but the site was carried away by the river before its occupation. Owes its importance to the family of Muzaffar Khán, whose brother fortified the town, and fixed his residence in it. Brisk export of indigo to Afghánistán, and of cotton and molasses to Sind; imports of sugar from Lahore, and salt from Pind Dádan Khán. Police station, post office, school-house, dispensary, *sarái*. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £377, or 2s. 3⅜d. per head of population (2778) within municipal limits.

Khaniá-dhána.—One of the petty States in Bundelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Central India Agency and the Government of India. It originally formed part of the Orchhá or Tehri State, the *jágír* having been granted by Udít Sinh to his younger brother, Amán Sinh, about the year 1703. After the dismemberment of the Orchhá State by the Marhattás, the Peshwá granted a *sanad* for the *jágír* to Amír Sinh. For a long time the claim to feudal suzerainty over Khaniá-dhána was disputed between the Marhattá State of Jhánsi and Orchhá. However, in 1862, when the Jhánsi Ráj was extinct, it was decided that the Khaniá-dhána *jágír* was directly dependent on the British Government, as it had undoubtedly formed part of the Marhattá conquests, to which the British Government had succeeded. The present Chief, Chhatar Sinh, is a Hindu Búndela, born about 1863. The area of the State is about 84 square miles; its population in 1875 was estimated at 8000; revenue, £2000. The State is in a wild tract of country, with much hill and jungle, west of the Betwa river and south-west of Orchhá.

Khanna. — Municipal town in Ludhiána District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 42′ N., long. 76° 16′ E.; pop. (1868), 3408. Situated on Grand Trunk Road, and Sind, Punjáb, and Delhi Railway, 27 miles south-west of Ludhiána. Only important from possession of a railway station. Headquarters of a police subdivision (*tháná*). Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £160, or 11¼d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Kha-noung-to. — Revenue circle in Angyí township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 5728; gross revenue, £3075.

Khánpur.—Government village in Shikárpur District, Sind; situated about 8 miles north of Shikárpur town. Lat. 28° 0′ 15″ N., long. 68° 47′ E.; pop. (1872), 2807, viz. 1849 Muhammadans (principally belonging to the Bapar and Sethar tribes) and 958 Hindus (of the Loháni caste). Headquarters of a *tappadár*, with police station, *musafirkhána* (travellers' rest-house), and cattle pound. Manufactures—weaving, shoemaking, and pottery. Trade chiefly in agricultural produce.

Khánpur.—Commercial town in Bahâwalpur State, Punjab; situated on the Ikhtiárwah, a navigable canal from the Panjnad. Lat. 30° 9′ N., long. 71° 16′ E.; estimated pop., 10,000. Ruinous mud fort; good roofed *bázár*. The country in the immediate neighbourhood is irrigated, and supports a considerable population; but the sandy desert to the south presents the usual barren appearance of the Punjab uplands. Thornton says that Khánpur bears marks of having formerly possessed greater importance than at the present time. It now forms a station on the Indus Valley State Railway.

Khánua (*Khánwa*). — Town in Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) State, Ráj-putána; situated on the road from Agra to Ajmere, 37 miles west of the former and 197 miles east of the latter town. Lat. 27° 2′ N., long. 77° 33′ E. Thornton states that this village was the site of the great battle, in 1526 A.D., between the Mughal conqueror Bábar and the confederated Rájput princes under Rána Sanka of Udáipur (Oodey-pore). The latter were completely defeated, and Bábar henceforth assumed the title of *Gházi*, 'Victorious over the Infidel.'

Khánwáhar.—Government village in the Naushahro Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád (Hyderábád), District, Sind; 8 miles north-east of Kandiaro town. Pop. (1872), 1085, chiefly agriculturists. Cotton cloth is manufactured for home consumption and export. The town is supposed to have been founded some 300 years ago by one Khán Sahta, a *zamíndár*. Headquarters station of a *tappadár*.

Khanwah Canal.—One of the Upper Sutlej (Satlaj) Inundation Channels in Lahore and Montgomery Districts, Punjab, and the most important of those useful irrigation works. The canal follows the

course of an ancient flood-torrent bed, with a cross cut from the Sutlej. Its origin and date remain uncertain, though tradition assigns its construction, amongst other persons, to Khán Khánan, a minister of the Emperor Akbar, who held this part of the country as a fief. In 1811, the head was reported to be choked up with sand; and in the succeeding year, Mahárájá Kharrak Sinh cleared it out by contributions levied from the surrounding landowners. Shortly after, the canal once more silted up, and continued inefficient till 1843, when Mahárájá Sher Sinh repaired it at the expense of the State, which has since levied a half-yearly water rate of 16s. per acre irrigated. The head-water flows from the Sutlej near Mamokí, in Lahore District, and the channel runs as far as Dipálpur in Montgomery. Since the annexation, the Canal Department has taken charge of the works, and greatly promoted its efficiency, though much might still be done to render it useful to a larger area. Irrigation is supplied to 173 estates, paying a total land revenue of £5772, and a water rate of £2274.

Kha-nwai-kha-bho.—Revenue circle in Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma, extending along the left bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). The country is flat, and covered, except where under cultivation, with grass and tree forest. Pop. (1876), 5554; gross revenue, £1832.

Khápa.—A thriving town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 25′ N., long. 79° 2′ E.; situated on high ground overlooking the Kanhán river, 20 miles north of Nágpur, with which it is connected by the Chhindwára road as far as Pátan-sáongí (14 miles), and thence by a main District road. Estimated population (1877), 8007. Fine groves surround the town, and the river and numerous wells supply excellent water. Melons are largely cultivated on the sandbanks in the river bed. Khápa manufactures cotton cloth of good quality; and imports cotton, wool, grain, European goods and hardware, and silk thread. The town is well kept; it has a dispensary, a school where English is taught, police buildings, and a *sarái;* and four good metalled roads converge in the central market-place.

Kha-raik-thit.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Extends from the Salwín on the east across almost the whole of Bhílú-gywon; it includes Heng-tha Island in the Salwín. Pop. (1876), 3980, mainly Talaings; land revenue, £1117, and capitation tax, £369.

Kharáila. — Large village in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 32′ N., long. 79° 50′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 7809, consisting of 7504 Hindus and 305 Muhammadans. Situated near the Charkhári border, within which lie many of its lands; distant from Hamírpur 40 miles south-west. Largest area of any village in the District, amounting to 18,260 acres. Police station, village school,

bázár, handsome temple to an unknown deity. No trade or manufactures.

Kharakpur.—Town and headquarters of a police circle (*tháná*) in Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 7′ 10″ N., long. 86° 35′ 20″ E. The *parganá* which gives its name to the town forms one of the estates of the Mahárájá of Darbhangah. Extensive irrigation works are being carried out here under the superintendence of the Public Works Department. Charitable dispensary and school, maintained by the Mahárájá.

Kha-ra-kywon. — Revenue circle in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 3963; gross revenue, £4255.

Kharal.—One of the petty States in Mahi Kánta, Bombay. The Míah or Chief, Sirdár Sinh, is a Múkwána Koli, converted to Islám, and observes a sort of mixed Muhammadan and Hindu religion. The area of the land under cultivation is estimated at 2100 acres, the population in 1875 was estimated at 2814, and revenue at £1400. Tribute is paid of £175 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £76 to the British Government.

Kharar.—*Tahsíl* of Umballa (Ambála) District, Punjab; situated between 30° 38′ and 30° 53′ N. lat., and between 76° 34′ and 76° 49′ E. long.

Kharar.—Municipal town in Umballa (Ambála) District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 30° 44′ 45″ N., long. 76° 41′ 15″ E.; pop. (1868), 4884. Situated on the road from Umballa to Rupár, 25 miles north of the former town. *Tahsíli*, police station. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £240, or 11¾d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Kharbá.—Town and headquarters of a police circle (*tháná*) in Maldah District, Bengal; recently transferred from Purniah District.

Kharda.—Town in the Jamkher Subdivision of Ahmednagar District, Bombay; situated 56 miles south-east of Ahmednagar. Lat. 18° 38′ N., long. 75° 31′ E.; pop. (1872), 6899. In 1795, an engagement took place near here between the Marhattás and the Nizám. The Marhattá general, being defeated, retreated to Kharda, and, being completely hemmed in by the enemy, was constrained to accede to an ignominious treaty. Post office.

Khardah.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Húglí river. Lat. 22° 43′ 30″ N., long. 88° 24′ 30″ E. A Vishnuvite place of pilgrimage in honour of Nityánand, one of the disciples of Chaitanya, who took up his residence here. His descendants are regarded as *gurus* or spiritual guides by the Vaishnavs. Khardah is a small roadside station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 11 miles north of Calcutta.

Khári.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal;

situated on the old bed of the Ganges. The village contains a small church connected with the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and many of its inhabitants are native converts. A tank called Ganga Chakragháta is held peculiarly sacred by the Hindus, and multitudes annually resort to its waters. English school.

Khárián.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Gujrát District, Punjab; consisting mainly of the dry submontane tract, intersected by hill torrents, in deep beds unavailable for purposes of irrigation. Lat. 32° 21′ to 33° N., long. 73° 37′ 30″ to 74° 15′ E. Area, 695 square miles; pop. (1868), 154,287; number of villages, 332.

Khariár.—Chiefship in Ráipur District, Central Provinces; lying to the east of Bindra Nawágarh, and stretching for 53 miles from north to south, and 32 from east to west. Khariár is said to have been formed long ago out of the Pátná State, as a dowry for the daughter of a Pátná chief. Nearly half the area is cultivated. The chief is a Chauhán. Khariár village is situated in lat. 20° 17′ 30″ N., long. 82° 48′ 30″ E.

Kharkhandi.—Municipal town in Rohtak District, Punjab. Lat. 28° 52′ N., long. 76° 57′ E.; pop. (1868), 4181. Municipal revenue, £214; expenditure, £175; incidence of taxation, 1s. 0¼d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Kharmatar.—Village in the District of the Santál Parganás, Bengal. Railway station on the chord line of the East Indian Railway, 168 miles from Calcutta.

Kharod.—Town in Biláspur District, Central Provinces; 40 miles east of Biláspur. Pop. about 3000, comprising traders of all kinds. The weekly market is well attended. The origin of Kharod is unknown; but an old tablet bears the date of Samvat 902 (A.D. 845), and the remains of ancient earthworks prove the place to have been strongly fortified.

Kharsal.—Chiefship in Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 30 miles west of Sambalpur. Pop. (1866), 4298, entirely agricultural, residing in 18 villages, on an area of 12 square miles. Kharsal, the chief village, has a good school. The chiefship derives its origin from the grant of this village three centuries ago, in the reign of Baliár Sinh, Rájá of Sambalpur, to one Udam Gond. The late chief, Dayá Sardár, was hanged in 1860 for his share in the Surendra Sáí rebellion. Kharsál village is situated in lat. 21° 31′ N., long. 83° 33′ E.

Kharsáwán.—One of the petty States in Singbhúm District, Chutiá Nágpur, under the Government of Bengal. Situated between 22° 41′ and 22° 53′ 30″ N. lat., and between 85° 40′ 30″ and 85° 57′ 15″ E. long. The Thákur, Raghunáth Sinh Deo, is a Hindu Rájput. Area, 140 square miles; population (1872), 26,280; revenue, £750. This State, with others in Chutiá Nágpur, was ceded to the British by

the Marhattás. The chief is under engagements binding him to right administration, and his decisions in serious cases are subject to appeal to the Commissioner of Chutiá Nágpur. Kharsáwán village is situated in 24° 47′ 30″ N., long. 85° 52′ 20″ E.

Kharshán.—Village in Dárjíling District, Bengal.—*See* KARSIANG.

Kharsia.—Petty State in the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. The chief receives from Sindhia, through the Political Agency, a *tánkha*, or pecuniary allowance of £175, in lieu of rights over land. The Thákur died in December 1875, leaving a disputed succession.

Kharsi Jhalária.—Petty State in the Indore Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. There are two Thákurs, cousins; one, Motí Sinh, receives £175 from Sindhia, as well as £22 from the Rájá of Dewás.

Kharsuá.—River of Orissa, rising in the Tributary States, and flowing south-eastwards through Cuttack District till it falls into the left bank of the BRAHMANI river, a short distance above the point where the combined waters of the BAITARANI and BRAHMANI fall into the Bay of Bengal as the DHAMRA estuary.

Kharturí.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 40′ 15′ N., long. 85° 5′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 6207.

Khasaura.—Town in Bilgrám *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh; situated on the left bank of the Rámganga, 12 miles north-west of Sándi, on the road to Farrukhábád. A well-to-do Ahír village of (1869) 2648 inhabitants, residing in 399 mud houses. Bi-weekly market.

Khási and Jáintia Hills.—A British District in Assam; lies between 25° 1′ and 26° 14′ N. lat., and between 90° 47′ and 92° 52′ E. long. It contains an estimated area of 6157 square miles, with a population, according to the Census of 1872, of 141,838 souls. The administrative headquarters are at the station of SHILLONG, which is also the residence of the Chief Commissioner of Assam, situated in 25° 32′ 39″ N. lat., and 91° 55′ 32° E. long.

The Khási and Jáintia Hills form the central section of the watershed between the valleys of the Brahmaputra and the Surma. On the north the District is bounded by Kámrúp and Nowgong; east by the Nágá Hills and Northern Cáchár; south by Sylhet; and west by the Garo Hills.

History.—In history, as in administration, the Khási Hills and the Jáintia Hills constitute two separate tracts. The Khási Hills are occupied by a collection of States, each governed by an elective ruler, on democratic principles. The chiefs have never been completely brought under the British administration, and retain marks of their semi-independence. The JAINTIA HILLS, on the other hand, are purely British territory, being that portion of the dominions of the Rájá of Jáintia annexed in

1835, which it was not found convenient to incorporate with the District of Sylhet. When the East India Company acquired the *díwání* of Bengal in 1765, Sylhet was the frontier District towards the north-east. All beyond was occupied by wild tribes, who had never acknowledged subjection to the Muhammadans. Among these wild frontier tribes the Khásias early attracted attention. By their language and other national characteristics, they stand out in marked contrast to the various peoples by whom they are surrounded. Securely perched on the precipices and plateaux of their native hills, they have preserved a grammatical form of speech which philologists are unable to classify, and a political constitution to which there is no analogy in the rest of India. But it was not to scientific inquirers that they first became an object of curiosity. They possess, on the southern slopes of their mountains, a rich abundance of natural products, which at an early date attracted European enterprise. From time immemorial, Bengal has drawn its supply of limestone, lime, and oranges from the Khási Hills. Potatoes, an article of export now hardly second to lime, were introduced in 1830 by the first British Agent, Mr. Scott. Coal and iron are found in many places, both of excellent quality; but the expense of transport prevents the coal from being utilized, and the greater cheapness of English iron has gradually overcome the old reputation of the Khásias as iron smelters. Even in the last century, the large profits to be obtained from the trade in lime, known at Calcutta by the name of 'Sylhet lime,' had brought the English officers stationed at Sylhet into contact with the Khásias. In 1826, the chief of Nongklao, one of the largest of the Khási States, entered into an agreement with certain European British subjects to allow a road to be made across the hills, to connect the Surmá valley with Assam Proper. These Europeans took up their residence at Nongklao. Unfortunately, misunderstandings arose, and the growing discontent was fanned into a flame by the misconduct of some of their Bengáli followers. On the 4th April 1829, the Khásias rose in arms and massacred Lieutenants Bedingfield and Burlton, together with some sepoys. This led to military operations on the part of the British Government, which were protracted through several cold seasons. The last of the Khási chiefs did not tender his submission till 1833. From 1835 to 1854, Colonel Lister was Political Agent in the Khási Hills, with his headquarters at Nongklao, subsequently moved to Cherra Poonjee (Chára Púnjí).

The inhabitants of the Jaintia Hills, who call themselves Syntengs, have a less interesting history than the Khásias. They first became British subjects in 1835. In that year, the last Rájá of Jáintia, Indra Sinh, was deposed on the charge of complicity with certain of his tribesmen who had carried off three Bengalis, and barbarously immolated them at a shrine of Kálí. That portion of his territory lying in the

plains was incorporated with the District of Sylhet; and the Rájá voluntarily resigned the hill portion, of which also we took possession. The indigenous revenue system was continued, consisting simply of the payment of a he-goat once a year from each village. In 1860, however, a house tax was imposed, the highest limit of which was 1 rupee (2s.) per house. This measure of direct taxation was very obnoxious to the Syntengs, and it led to outbreaks, which had to be suppressed by force. In the following year, fresh taxation was introduced in the shape of judicial stamps, the schedules of the income tax, and imposts upon fisheries and wood-cutting. The absence of any resident European officer, and the injudicious acts of certain Bengálí subordinates, precipitated a general insurrection. In January 1862, the *thánά* or police station of Jowái was burnt to the ground; the garrison of sepoys was besieged, and all show of British authority was quickly swept away throughout the hills. The Syntengs fought bravely for their independence, and at first were successful in cutting off several small detachments of police and sepoys. Their only weapons were bows and arrows. Their defences consisted of a series of strong stockades, the pathways leading to which were thickly planted with *pánjís* or little bamboo spikes. At last it was found necessary to move regular troops into the country. The military operations were tedious and harassing. The rebel chiefs were captured one by one, and the District was declared to be finally pacified in March 1863, after the rebellion had lasted for fifteen months. Various measures of improvement were introduced into the administration, and the Syntengs, like the Khásias, have ever since remained peaceable and contented.

Physical Aspects.—The District consists of a succession of steep ridges, running east and west, with elevated tablelands between. On the southern side, towards Sylhet, the mountains rise precipitously from the valley of the BARAK. The first plateau is met with at the height of about 4000 feet above sea level. Farther north is another plateau, on which is situated the station of Shillong, 4900 feet above the sea; behind lies the Shillong range, of which the highest peak rises to 6449 feet. On the north side, towards Kámrúp, are two similar plateaux of lower elevation. The general appearance of all these tablelands is that of undulating downs, covered with grass, but destitute of large timber. On the whole, the Khási Hills are remarkable for the absence of forest. At an elevation of 3000 feet, the indigenous pine (Pinus kasia) predominates over all other vegetation, and forms almost pure pine forests. The highest ridges are clothed with magnificent clumps of timber-trees, which superstition has preserved from the axe of the woodcutter. The characteristic trees in these sacred groves are those of a temperate zone, chiefly consisting of oaks, chestnuts, magnolias, etc. Beneath the shade grow rare orchids, rhododendrons, and wild

cinnamon. The streams that find their way through the hills are merely mountain torrents, navigable by canoes only in their lower reaches. As they approach the plains, they form rapids and cascades, and many of them pass through narrow gorges of wild beauty.

The forests are too scanty to furnish any considerable source of revenue. The total area of 'unreserved forest,' *i.e.*, land covered with timber-trees and not at present required for *júm* cultivation, is only 150 square miles. There are no forest reserves. The two little experimental plantations near Shillong under the charge of the Forest Department cover only about 1000 acres. The cinchona plantation near Nongklao has been abandoned to the care of the local chief. The natural wealth of the Khási Hills is confined to the limestone quarries, found along the southern slope. From time immemorial, Lower Bengal has drawn its supply of lime from this source, and the quarries are literally inexhaustible. In 1876-77, the total export of lime was estimated at 1,600,000 *maunds*, valued at £48,000. The revenue derived by Government was £6726, and the native chiefs received in addition over £2000. The quarries are chiefly situated in the beds and on the banks of rivers, and the stone is transported by water to the Barák river, where it is either at once calcined or placed in the lump upon larger vessels for shipment to Bengal. Coal of excellent quality crops out at Cherra Poonjee (Chára Púnjí), Lá-ká-dong, Shellá, and several other places; but owing to difficulty of transport and the high price of labour, these deposits have never yet been remuneratively worked. Ironstone exists in abundance in all parts of the hills, and in former days the Khásias were renowned as smelters of iron. Recently, however, the cheapness of the iron imported from England has almost succeeded in driving the native commodity out of the market. Among other natural products may be mentioned bees-wax, lac, and caoutchouc. Wild animals of all kinds abound, including elephants, rhinoceros, tigers, buffaloes, *mithuns* or wild cows, and many varieties of deer. The rivers swarm with fish; the *máhsir* especially is excellent both for sport and for the table.

People.—No early estimates of the population exist. In 1872, at the time of the Bengal Census, an enumeration was taken mainly through the agency of the native chiefs. The results, which were drawn up on a less elaborate system than in Regulation Districts, show a total population in the Khási and Jáintia Hills of 141,838 persons, dwelling in 1003 villages and in 30,557 houses. These figures give an average of 23 persons per square mile, 141 persons per village, and 4·6 persons per house. Divided according to sex, there are 68,593 males and 73,245 females; proportion of males, 48·36 per cent. Divided according to age, there are, under 12 years, 28,611 boys and 28,947 girls; total children, 57,558, or 40·6 per cent. of the population. The religious

classification of the people shows 141,283 aborigines, 365 Hindus, 62 Muhammadans, and 128 Christians, including 35 Europeans, 8 Eurasians, and 85 native converts. As is clearly shown by these figures, the two races of Khásias and Syntengs have succeeded in preserving to the present day their primitive isolation, free from the interference of Hinduism. They still maintain their indigenous forms of belief and religious worship, and repudiate alike the authority of Bráhmans and the entire system of caste. They have only given way somewhat to Hindu prejudices so far as regards purity of food. The few Hindus to be found in the Hills are temporary residents, in civil or military employ; even the traders are all natives of the District. There is no emigration, except in the case of the labourers who proceed southward every year to work on the tea-gardens in Cáchár and Sylhet.

The Khásias occupy a position of isolation among the hill tribes by whom they are surrounded, in language, national characteristics, and political institutions. From the point of view of ethnology, they are commonly classed with the neighbouring Syntengs, Gáros, Nágás, Cáchárís, etc. as a subdivision of the Indo-Chinese branch of the human family. Their physiognomy, colour, and physical appearance would place them among these tribes; but their language has no analogy elsewhere in the whole of India. It has been described as 'monosyllabic in the agglutinative stage.' The greater number of the words used are monosyllabic roots; the compounds are mere juxtapositions of these roots, which do not suffer obscuration or absorption in the process. In only a few exceptional cases, certain prefixes have now lost their original meaning and become mere symbols of modification. The Khásias have no written character or literature, or even any traditions of their own. The missionaries use school-books printed in the Roman character. The Khási political organization consists of a number of petty States or democracies, presided over by elective chiefs. The Hindu village community, the hereditary Rájá of some neighbouring States, and the military general of others, are alike unknown to them. The most curious of their social customs is the importance attached to female descent and female authority. The husband marries into the wife's family, the wife or her mother is regarded as the head of the household, and all property descends in the female line. The ashes of the dead are buried under cromlechs or dolmens, consisting of four upright slabs of stone covered over by a fifth slab.

The only places in the Khási and Jáintia Hills larger than villages are the three British stations of SHILLONG, CHERRA POONJEE (CHARA PUNJI), and JOWAI. Cherra Poonjee was the chief civil station in the District until 1864, and it is still the centre of the operations of the Welsh Calvinistic Mission. In 1864, the District headquarters were removed to Shillong, which was selected in 1874 as the permanent seat

of the local government of Assam. According to the enumeration of 1872, Shillong then contained only 1363 inhabitants, but the number must have since largely increased. A cart-road has been opened to Gauhátí in the Brahmaputra valley, and large sums of money have been expended on the erection of public buildings. Sanitation is carefully attended to, and an excellent supply of water is conveyed into the town by means of an aqueduct. Jowái is the residence of the Assistant Commissioner of the Jáintia Hills.

Agriculture.—The chief cereal crop cultivated by the Khásias is rice, but even of this they do not grow sufficient for their own consumption. The rice crop is cultivated in two ways—(1) on low marshy land, which can be regularly irrigated by means of artificial channels cut from the adjoining hill streams; (2) on high lands, where the grass and low jungle has been previously cut down and burned on the spot. Other crops grown for food are Indian corn, millet, pulses, and an esculent root called *soh-phlang*, resembling a small turnip. *Pán* or betel-leaf and *supári* or betel-nut are largely grown, both for consumption and export. The following four crops are cultivated in large quantities, chiefly for exportation to Bengal:—(1) Potatoes, (2) oranges, (3) pine-apples, (4) *tez-pát* or bay-leaves. Sugar-cane is grown in some places, and cotton very generally. Potatoes were first introduced into the hills in 1830, but they are not even yet used as food by the natives. In 1876-77, the export of potatoes was estimated at 7480 tons, valued at £50,125. Oranges, limes, and pine-apples are grown to great perfection on the southern slopes of the hills, whence Calcutta draws its supply of these fruits. In 1876-77, the export of oranges was valued at £3760, and of pine-apples at £800. In the Jáintia Hills the use of the plough is common, but in the Khási Hills no agricultural implement is used except the hoe. Manure in the form of cow-dung is generally used for rice and potatoes. Irrigation is regularly practised. The total area under cultivation is estimated at only 286 square miles, but an additional 3898 square miles are cultivable. The crops are thus distributed —rice, 59,880 acres; other food grains, 57,820 acres; potatoes, 33,880 acres; cotton, 1076 acres. The average out-turn per acre is returned at 6 cwts. of rice, 2 cwts. of other food grains, 40 cwts. of potatoes, and 1½ cwt. of cotton. The relations of landlord and tenant do not exist throughout the Hills. The land is the absolute property of the cultivators, who pay no rent or revenue either to the British Government or to their own chiefs. Natural calamities, such as blight, flood, or drought, are almost unknown, and have never occurred on such a scale as to affect the general harvest. The price of rice is directly determined by the rates ruling in the neighbouring markets of Sylhet and Kámrúp, from which the larger portion of the food supply is drawn.

Commerce, etc.—The trade of the Khási Hills is very considerable.

This tract possesses almost a monopoly of certain valuable products; and the natives, who are notoriously keen at a bargain, retain all the profits in their own hands. According to estimates carefully compiled by the Deputy Commissioner, the exports in 1876-77 were valued at £160,000, chiefly potatoes, limestone, cotton, stick-lac, *tezpát* or bay-leaves, oranges, betel-nuts, and betel-leaves. The imports were valued at £157,000, chiefly rice, dry fish, cotton cloth, salt, wheat-flour, tobacco, oil, and *ghí*. By far the greater portion of the trade is conducted at a row of markets along the southern foot of the hills, of which Chhaták on the Barák, in Sylhet District, is the most important. The trade on the Kámrúp side is comparatively small, except for the importation of rice. The chief means of communication in the District is the road recently opened for wheeled traffic from Shillong to Gauhátí, on the Brahmaputra. This road is 67 miles in length, and its construction is described as a model of engineering skill. There are seven other roads through the hills, maintained at the public expense, most of which lead to the Sylhet frontier. The manufactures of the District are insignificant. Besides a decaying business in iron-smelting, they comprise coarse cotton and *randia* cloth, plain silver-work, rude implements of husbandry, netted bags made of pine-apple fibre, common pottery, mats, and baskets.

Administration.—The Khási and Jáintia Hills constitute a Political Agency, independent of the ordinary jurisdiction. The British territory, which consists of the whole of the Jáintia Hills and a few spots such as the stations of Shillong and Cherra Poonjee in the Khási Hills, is administered under a special code by the Deputy Commissioner and his Assistant. The Khási petty States, 25 in number, are presided over by elective chiefs, variously styled Seims, Wáhadádárs, Sardárs, and Lyngdohs. These chiefs have jurisdiction over their own subjects in all cases except homicide. The British Government undertakes the management of the natural products of the country, such as lime, coal, timber, and elephants, and pays over to the chiefs a half share of the profits. Their other sources of revenue are market dues, court fines, and various cesses. Their aggregate income is approximately estimated at £5000, of which £2300 is derived from lime quarries.

In 1875, the total revenue of the District to the British Government amounted to £13,383, of which the larger portion came from royalties on lime quarries and the house tax; the expenditure in the same year was £9692. The house tax is levied throughout the Jáintia Hills only, at the rate of 2s. or 4s. per house; in 1876-77, the total realized was £1371. The land tax is applied only to a few plots of land transferred from Sylhet District; the total is only £22 a year, derived from 24 estates. In 1875, there were 4 magisterial and civil

courts in the District, and 2 European officers. The headquarters of the 43d Assam Light Infantry are stationed at Shillong, with 3 outposts. The total strength of the regiment in 1875 was 935 officers and men. For police purposes, the District is divided into 3 *thánás* or police circles, with 2 outposts. In 1875, the regular police force numbered 131 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £2497. These figures show 1 policeman to every 16·49 square miles of area, or to every 153 persons of the population; the cost being 8s. 1½d. per square mile and 4¼d. per head. The administration of justice is mainly conducted in criminal cases by the petty chiefs, and in civil cases before *pancháyats* or indigenous courts of arbitration; only heinous crimes or important suits are referred to the British officers. In 1874, the number of cases so referred was 81; the number of persons tried was 71, of whom 61 or 86 per cent. were convicted. There is a jail at Shillong, and a lock-up at Jowái. In 1875, the daily average number of prisoners was 40·91, of whom 1·07 were females. The total expenditure was £743, or an average of £18, 2s. for each prisoner.

The management of education in the Khási and Jáintia Hills is in the hands of the Welsh Calvinistic Mission, whose efforts have been rewarded by most satisfactory results. In 1874-75, the total number of schools open in the District was 73, attended by 1666 pupils, being 1 school to every 84·34 square miles, and 1 pupil to every 85 inhabitants. The total expenditure on education in that year was £1772, towards which Government contributed £1044; the average cost per pupil was £1, 1s. 3½d. English is taught in 45 schools out of the 64. The normal school for higher instruction was attended by 39 pupils, of whom 10 were girls. Female education has made more progress among the Khásias than perhaps in any other part of India. During 1874-75, the number of girls attending school increased from 242 to 344, showing 4·7 pupils to every thousand of the female population. The Khásias are described as being very eager that their children, both boys and girls, should attend school; but they take them away at an early age, in order that they may earn wages for their own support.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the Khási and Jáintia Hills is mild and equable, though in some parts excessively humid. At Shillong, the thermometer rarely exceeds 80° F., and has been known to fall to 38°. Hoar frost lies on the ground almost every morning during the months of December, January, and February. Shallow water occasionally freezes over, but snow never falls. The rainfall at Cherra Poonjee is enormous. The average during the three years ending 1876 is returned at 368·41; and 805 inches are said to have fallen in 1861, including 366 inches in the single month of July. At Shillong, where the clouds rolling up from the plains of Bengal have already spent their force on

three intervening ridges, the annual rainfall declines to about 85 inches; and at Jowái, which occupies an intermediate position, the average is about 150 inches. The rainy season is confined to the five months from May to November. The District is liable to shocks of earthquake, one of which, in 1875, did much damage to the houses in Shillong.

Generally speaking, the climate of the hills is healthy, both for natives and Europeans. Malarious fevers do not exist, except in the marshy strip or *tarái* on the northern frontier. Cholera never prevails, unless directly imported from the plains. The chief diseases are fevers of a typhoid character, or at least engendered by insanitary conditions of life; small-pox, dysentery, and bowel complaints. Europeans on first arriving at Shillong frequently suffer from disorders of the liver; but afterwards enjoy excellent health, when they have once passed through a short period of acclimatizing indisposition. European children thrive remarkably. Except in the case of Shillong, no regard is paid to the requirements of conservancy in any Khási village. The returns from a selected area in the neighbourhood of Jowái, with a population of 12,504, show a death-rate in 1874 of 28 per thousand, and a birth-rate of 34 per thousand. The charitable dispensary at Shillong was attended in 1874 by 44 in-door and 529 out-door patients. The total expenditure was £119, towards which Government contributed £60.

Khatak Hills.—A range or series of ranges in Kohát and Pesháwar District, Punjab; so called from the Afghán tribe who inhabit them. They bound Pesháwar District to the south, and extend from the Sufed Koh system to the Indus. In Kohát, they consist of an intricate network of barren and almost perpendicular ridges, intersected by deep valleys, whose sides are clothed with jungle and scored by innumerable ravines. Patches of cultivation, however, nestle in the open glades, while occasional clumps of acacia and wild olive relieve the sterile monotony of the bare gorges. The Teri Toi river divides the system into two main groups, the southern of which contains the famous salt mines of Narri, Bahádur Khel, and Kharrak; while the mines of Malgin and Jatta lie among the spurs of the northern range. The peaks of the south-eastern group seldom attain a height exceeding 3000 feet; but Swánai Sír, in the opposite range, has an elevation of 4785 feet above sea level. The salt, which gives these mountains their chief importance, occurs as a solid rock, uncovered and exposed in many places, so as to be quarried rather than mined. The deposit may probably rank as one of the largest in the world. It has a bluish grey colour, but grinds white. Large quantities are exported to the Punjab towns, to Afghánistán, and to the surrounding countries generally. The Government Preventive Establishment consisted in 1872 of 204 persons, maintained at a total annual

cost of £1678. The total quantity of salt extracted from the five mines in 1870-71 amounted to 407,098 *maunds*, and the duty realized to £8556. The headquarters of the salt establishment are at Jatta. The Khatak Hills on the Pesháwar border have an average height of about 3000 feet, but the highest peak, that of Jawála Sír, close to the sanitarium of CHARAT, reaches an elevation of 5110 feet.

Khátauli. — Rising commercial town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 17′ N., long. 77° 46′ 10″ E.; pop. (1872), 6409, consisting of 3688 Hindus, 2717 Muhammadans, and 4 Christians. Distant from Muzaffarnagar 13⅛ miles south. Railway station on Sind, Punjab, and Delhi line. Ganges Canal passes just west of the town. Large colony of enterprising Jain grain-dealers. Four Jain temples. Increasing mart for country produce. First-class police station, branch post office, school. Local revenue in 1872-73, £247.

Khatmandu (*Káthmándú*).—Capital of the Native State of Nepál; situated on the east bank of the Vishnumati river at its junction with the Bághmatí, in lat. 27° 36′ N., long. 85° 24′ E.; pop. estimated at 50,000, occupying about 5000 houses, which are usually from two to four storeys high, made of brick, and tiled or (in the suburbs) thatched,—many houses possessing large projecting wooden windows or balconies, often richly carved. There are many small open spaces in various parts of the town, paved, like the streets, with brick and stone; in these the markets are held, and Dr. Wright (*History of Nepál*, 1877) notices that in the mornings these places are quite gay with the flowers, fruit, and vegetables exposed for sale. The general shape of the city is very irregular, but it is said by the natives to resemble the *Khora* or Sword of Deví. It is said to have been founded by Rájá Gunakámadeva about A.D. 723.

Dr. Wright gives the following description of the chief objects of interest at Khatmandu:—

'In the centre of the town stands the Mahárájá's palace, which is a huge, rambling, ungainly building. Part of it is very old, built in pagoda fashion, and covered with elaborate and grotesque carvings. Other parts of it, such as the Darbár-room, have been built within the last ten years, and possess glass windows, which are rare in Nepál, being found only in the houses of the wealthiest. In the square in front of the palace are numerous handsome temples. Many of these are like pagodas, of several storeys in height, and profusely ornamented with carvings, painting, and gilding. The roofs of many of them are entirely of brass or copper gilt, and along the eaves of the different storeys are hung numerous little bells, which tinkle in the breeze. At some of the doorways are placed a couple of large stone lions or griffins, with well-curled manes, which remind one strongly of the

figures found at Nineveh. Another description of temple is built of stone, with pillars and a dome. Though less ornamented and less picturesque, this style is far more graceful than the other. Close to the palace, on the north, is the temple of Taléju, one of the largest of the pagoda type. It is said to have been built by Rájá Mahendra Malla, about A.D. 1549. It is devoted entirely to the use of the royal family. In front of several of the temples are tall monoliths, some surmounted by figures of old Rájás, who founded the temples, others by the winged figure of Garúr. The figures are often in a kneeling posture, facing a temple, and are generally overhung by a brazen snake, on whose head is perched a little bird. Not far from the palace, and close to one of the temples, is an enormous bell, suspended to stone pillars; and in another building are two huge drums, about eight feet in diameter. The bell is sounded by pulling the tongue, but the peal is by no means what might be expected from its size. Here, too, are several huge and hideous figures of Hindu gods and goddesses, which on festival days are dressed up and ornamented in the usual way.

'About 200 yards from the palace stands a large semi-European building, called the Kót, which is famous as being the place where, in 1846, the massacre took place of almost all the leading men of the country, by which event the [late] prime minister, Sir Jang Bahádur, was established in power.

'Besides the temples already noticed, many others are to be found in every street and lane. In fact, at a first glance, the town seems to consist of almost nothing but temples. They vary in size from the gigantic pagoda of Taléju to a diminutive shrine cut out of a single stone, with an image a few inches high in the centre. Many of them present a most repulsive appearance, being dabbled over with the blood of cocks, ducks, goats, and buffaloes, which are sacrificed before them.

'The streets of Khátmándú are very narrow—mere lanes, in fact; and the whole town is very dirty. In every lane there is a stagnant ditch full of putrid mud, and no attempt is ever made to clean these thoroughly. The streets, it is true, are swept in the centre, and part of the filth is carried off by the sellers of manure; but to clean the drains would now be impossible without knocking down the entire city, as the whole ground is saturated with filth. The houses are generally built in the form of hollow squares, opening off the streets by low doorways; and these central courtyards are too often only receptacles for rubbish of every sort. In short, from a sanitary point of view, Khátmándú may be said to be built on a dunghill in the middle of latrines!

'On leaving the town by the north-east gateway, and turning to the south, the first object one sees is a large tank, the Ránipukhari. It is surrounded by a wall, and in the centre is a temple, united to the western bank by a long narrow brick bridge. On the south side is a

large figure of an elephant, cut out of, or rather built of, stone, bearing the image of Rájá Pratápa Malla, the maker of the tank, and of his Ráni. A little farther south, the road passes through an avenue of *bukáyun* trees, which runs between the city and the great parade-ground or Tudikhel. This ground is a large open space, covered with a fine greensward, and here the troops are daily drilled and exercised. In the centre is a square stone building about 30 feet high, which was erected by Sir Jang Bahádur after his return from England in 1851. On the top, till lately, stood a figure of Sir Jang Bahádur, holding a sword in one hand and a scroll in the other, and at the four corners were hideous brazen griffins or dragons. All these have, however, been removed to a new temple built by Sir Jang Bahádur on the bank of the Bághmatí. To the west of the parade-ground is a more graceful object, namely the Daréra or column erected by a former prime minister, General Bhímasena Thápá. This column is beautifully proportioned, standing on a base of stone, and rising to a height of 250 feet. This is the second column of the kind that was built by Bhímasena, the first having been thrown down by a violent earthquake in 1833. The column now standing was struck by lightning in 1856, and a large rent was made all down one side. It was repaired, however, in 1869, and now looks as well as ever. There is a good winding staircase inside, and from the windows at the top a fine bird's-eye view of the town and its environs may be obtained.

'A little farther south stands the arsenal, and to the east of the parade-ground are storehouses for ammunition, cannon, etc., and a manufactory where these are cast and bored. A new workshop on a larger scale has lately been built about 4 miles south of the city, on a small stream, the Nukkú, near Chaubahál.

'The road now turns to the east, and at about a mile south-east of Khátmándú it reaches Thápatali, the residence of [the late] Sir Jang Bahádur. This is an immense building, or rather range of buildings, situated close to the northern bank of the Bághmatí, just where it is crossed by a bridge leading to Pátan.'

A British Resident, with a small staff and escort, is stationed at Khátmándú. The Residency is situated about a mile out of the city on the north side, in a spot described by Dr. Wright (who was Residency Surgeon) as one of the best wooded and most beautiful in the valley, though it was originally assigned for a Residency 'because, owing to a deficient supply of water, it was a barren patch, supposed to be very unhealthy, and to be the abode of demons.'

Kha-ya.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 1584; land revenue, £303, and capitation tax, £163.

Kha-zaing.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim

Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 1373; land revenue, £86, and capitation tax, £136.

Khed.—Municipal town in Poona (Púna) District, Bombay; situated on the left bank of the river Bhima, 25 miles north of Poona. Lat. 18° 51′ N., long. 73° 55′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 6446; municipal revenue, £70. Post office and dispensary, and headquarters of the revenue and police officers of the Subdivision. Khed has a village area of upwards of 20 square miles. Within those limits are at least three places of interest, from an architectural or archæological point of view, viz. the tomb and mosque of Diláwar Khán, and an old Hindu temple of Siddheswar, on the left bank of the Bhima river.

Khedá.—Village in Cutch (Kachchh) State, Bombay; situated 13 miles south of Bhúj. Noted for its old Sivaite temple, dating from perhaps the end of the 10th century, and thrown down by an earthquake in 1819. The following description is condensed from an account furnished by Mr. James Burgess, Archæological Surveyor to the Government of Bombay. The shrine is still standing, and measures 8 feet 6 inches square inside, with walls 2 feet 7 inches thick, surrounded by a *pradakshina* or path 2 feet 6 inches wide—the *vimana* measuring 24 feet over all. This temple has been built partly of red and partly of yellowish stone, very hard, and standing exposure very well. Of the *mandap*, which was 18 feet 9 inches wide, only a part of the north wall with one window in it is left; all the rest is a heap of ruins. The sculptures on the walls are not numerous, but are superior to the usual run of such work. The elaborate ornamental work on the faces of the spire has been largely undercut; it represents the outlines of a *chaitya* window, repeated over a triangular face, with human figures between. Of these triangles of sculpture there are eight on each side, gradually diminishing in size as they rise higher and higher, one behind another, like so many gable ends. The corners of the shrine are surmounted by miniature spires, reaching not quite half the height of this sculpture, and above them are four other similar, but set farther inwards; above these and the sculpture rises the massive outline of the great central spire or *sikhára*, all beautifully carved. To light the *pradakshina*, there is a window of perforated stone on each side.

To the south-east of Khedá is a small village on a rising ground, above which stands the mausoleum of Pír Ghulám Alí. The principal buildings within the enclosure are:—(1) The *dargah*, facing the east with one large dome, and in front of it three smaller ones. Inside is the tomb, under a canopy, supported by 12 small columns. Against the pall lies a representation of a Mughal *pír*, a water-colour portrait of Alí, with a nimbus round his head, and below him Hassan and Husáin, also with aureoles; and in a third frame, Muhammad in a blue *chogá*, but the face left blank,—a curious compromise between the prohibition in the

Kurán and the desire for a palpable representation of the objects of reverence. (2) A canopy or *chhatra* stands in the middle of the quadrangle in front of the *dargah*, with a flat roof and balconies on each side. (3) Dádi Alí Sháh's *dargah*, with lantern minarets; a neat plain building, with three doors in front and two in the east end. The roof is supported by two arches, the whole width of the building. It contains no tomb, the body having been buried in Iran. These buildings were erected about eighty years ago, Ghulám Alí Sháh having died at Karáchí (Kurrachee) about 1792. The estate attached to the establishment is said to yield between £1800 and £1900 per annum, which is expended in charity.

Khejiri.—Village near the mouth of the Húglí river in Midnapur District, Bengal.—*See* KEDGEREE.

Khekera (or *Kahkra*).—Town in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces; situated 26 miles from Meerut town. Pop. (1865), 6045; in 1872, the population having fallen to below 5000, it was not returned separately in the Census Report. Said to have been founded about 1500 years ago by Ahírs, who were subsequently ousted by Játs from Sikandarpur. Fine Jain temple; second class police station. Large annual fair.

Khelát (or *Eastern Baluchistán*).—A collection of chiefships inhabited by tribes of Baluchís, acknowledging subordination to the Khán of Khelát, who is the ruler of BALUCHISTAN.

Khelát (*Kalát*).—Chief town of the territories of the Khán of Khelát in Baluchistán; situated on the northern spur of a limestone hill called the Sháh Mírdán. Lat. 28° 53′ N., long. 66° 28′ E. It is about 6800 feet above sea level, and has, in consequence, a temperate climate approximating to places situate in much higher latitudes. Khelát is a fortified town built in terraces, and has three gates, known as the Kháni, Mastung, and Belái—the two latter named, no doubt, from the roads leading to Mastung and Belá, which pass through them. The streets are extremely narrow, tortuous, and dirty. The walls are built of mud, with bastions at intervals; and both walls and bastions are said to be pierced with numerous loopholes for musketry. Only a few guns are mounted on them. The *bázár* of Khelát is reported to be large and well supplied with all kinds of necessaries; and the town itself is furnished with very clear and pure water from a stream which rises in the base of a limestone hill on the eastern side of the valley. The *miri*, or old fort, now forms the palace of the Khán, and overhangs the town. It consists of a confused mass of buildings closely crowded together. Cook says it is an imposing and antique structure, and probably the most ancient edifice in Baluchistán, owing its foundation to the Hindu kings who preceded the present Muhammadan dynasty. From the *darbár* room

in this building, which has an open balcony, a most extensive view is obtained, embracing the whole valley and surrounding hills. The suburbs of Khelát are two in number, one on the west and the other on the east side. They would appear to be extensive, and it is here that the Bábi portion of the community reside. The number of houses, according to the latest authority (Bellew), is said to be 3500, which would imply a population of about 14,000 persons; but this no doubt includes the suburbs. Masson states the total number of houses to have been, in his time, only 1100, which would give probably not more than between 4000 and 5000 inhabitants in all; but he has nevertheless estimated the population of Khelát and its environs at 14,000, which would thus show Bellew's calculation to be correct. The town of Khelát is inhabited by Brahuis, Hindus, Dehwárs, and Bábis or Afgháns, the latter residing chiefly, as has previously been stated, in the suburbs. The Brahuis form the great bulk of the inhabitants; but the cultivation is chiefly carried on by the Dehwár communities. There are several villages and walled gardens clustered together in the valley east of the town; of these, Siálkoh is one of the largest, having about 100 houses, or, say, 450 inhabitants. The trade and manufactures of Khelát are in every way slight and unimportant. Sir Frederick Goldsmid, whose opinion merits the highest consideration, prefers rendering the name as *Kalát.*

Khem Karan.—Municipal town in Lahore District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 9″ N., long. 74° 36′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 5847, consisting of 1342 Hindus, 3712 Muhammadans, 633 Síkhs, and 160 others. Situated on the old bank of the Beas (Biás), at the edge of the barren upland known as the Mánjha, 34 miles south of Lahore. No importance commercially or politically. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £327, or 1s. 1⅝d. per head of population (5869) within municipal limits.

Kherálí.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £1061. Tribute of £67 is paid to the British Government.

Kherálu.—Town in the Gáekwár's Dominions, Guzerat (Gujarát), Bombay. Lat. 23″ 54′ N., long. 72° 40′ E.; pop. (1872), 8212.

Kheri.—A British District in the Sítápur Division of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 27° 41′ and 28° 42′ N. lat., and between 80° 4′ 30″ and 81° 23′ E. long. Area (Parliamentary Return 1877), 2963 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent transfers, 739,283 persons. The largest District in Oudh, in the extreme north-west of the Province. Bounded on the north by the river Mohán, separating it from Nepál; on the east by the Kauriála river, separating it from Bahráich; on the south by Sítápur District; and on the west by

Sháhjahánpur District, in the North-Western Provinces. The administrative headquarters are at LAKHIMPUR town.

Physical Aspects.—Kheri District consists of a series of fairly elevated plateaux, separated by rivers flowing from the north-west, each of which is bordered by a belt of alluvial land. The rivers are, commencing from the east, the Kauriála, Suheli, Dahávar, Chauka, Ul, Jamwári, Kathna, Gumti, and Sukheta. North of the Ul, the country is what is generally styled *tarái*, and is considered very unhealthy. This tract probably formed in ancient times the bed of a lake, through which two main rivers, the Kauriála and Chauka, have for thousands of years been forcing their way. These two rivers change their courses constantly, abandoning old channels and opening up new, so that the whole surface is seamed with deserted river beds much below the level of the surrounding country. In these, the vegetation is very dense, and the stagnant waters are the cause of much fever. The people reside in the neighbourhood of the low ground, as the soil is more fertile and less expensive to cultivate than the uplands, which are covered with forest. South of the Ul, the scene changes. Between every two rivers there is a plain, more or less broad, considerably less elevated than the *tarái* tract to the north. There is very little slope in any of these plains for many miles, and marshes are formed, from which emerge the head-waters of many secondary streams, but which in the rains become dangerous torrents, and frequently cause devastating floods. The general slope of the country is from north-west to south-east, the highest elevation being 600 feet in the northern forests, and the lowest 375 feet, opposite Mallápur in the extreme south-east. Several large lakes exist, some formed by the ancient channels of the rivers in the north of the District being fine sheets of water, from 10 to 20 feet deep and from 3 to 4 miles long, and in places fringed with magnificent groves. In Páila and Kheri *parganás*, in the south, there are also some large natural lakes. There are no river-side towns, nor do any of the villages in the neighbourhood of the rivers contain any number of persons who live by fishing or river traffic. At the ferries on the Chauka and Kauriála, merchants encamp during the cold weather and buy up grain, departing before the rains commence. The whole north of the District is covered with vast forests, occupying a total area of 650 square miles. Of this area, 303 square miles were taken up by Government in 1861 and formed into a forest reserve. The remainder was divided into lots of 5000 acres or less, and let out to grantees rent-free for 20 years, and subsequently at half rates, upon the condition that one-fourth of the forest area should be cleared and brought into cultivation within 12 years. Some grants were sold outright at an upset price of 5s. an acre. Hardly any of these forest lessees either brought their land under cultivation under the first set of conditions, or paid up the

due instalments of their purchase money under the second. Consequently, 120 square miles of such grants were resumed by Government, raising the present reserved forest area to a total of 423 square miles. Of the 227 square miles still held by private individuals, but little has been brought under the plough. *Sál* occupies about two-thirds of the whole forest area. In Khairigarh *parganá*, the trees grow to a large size, there being more than ten to each acre, with a girth of over 4½ feet. The forests north of the Mohán consist mainly of *sál* and *ásan*. The banks of the Suheli are fringed with green *shisham* trees; above them rise masses of *khair*, with bare branches, and stiff, grey rugged trunks; and beyond them again, the *sál* forests, groups of tall, slender, straight stems, the older trees shooting up for 60 or 70 feet without a branch or bend. In addition to the forest, about 65 square miles of groves, chiefly of mango trees, are distributed over the District. There are no mineral products, except a little petroleum in Khairigarh *parganá*. *Kankar* of good quality is met with near Gola. Saltpetre is manufactured in large quantities at Dhaurahra. The wild animals include tigers, leopards, black buck, spotted deer, hog-deer, *nilgai*, principally found in the northern jungles. Tigers, although still numerous, have decreased considerably of late years. Poisonous snakes and crocodiles are common.

History.—The present District of Kheri has a very brief history, having only existed as an administrative unit since 1858. Under the native sovereigns of Oudh, it lay partly in the *Chaklá* of Muhamdi and partly in that of Khairábád. In 1856, when Oudh was annexed, two Districts were constituted, those of Muhamdi and Mallápur, dividing between them the whole of Kheri, in addition to several of the bordering *parganás* now included in Hardoi, Sítápur, and Bahráich. Their headquarters were Muhamdi and Mallápur, one to the extreme west of the present District, the other near the south-eastern corner, in Sítápur. When the Mutiny broke out, the officers of Muhamdi were captured by the Sháhjahánpur mutineers or by the Rájá of Mitauli and massacred; those at Mallápur fled north into the jungles of Nepál, being cut off from a retreat to the south, and perished of fever and ague. When the present District of Kheri was constituted in 1858, LAKHIMPUR was selected for the headquarters. It is 28 miles due north and within easy reach of Sítápur; but it cannot be considered central or very accessible, some villages being about 60 miles distant. In Akbar's time, the country was entirely divided among families of *zamíndárs*. The Rájás of Muhamdi, who afterwards acquired nearly the whole District, then held under a royal grant only 3000 *bíghás* and 5 small villages. The great estate of the Janwárs, which under its three heads Kaimahra, Oel, and Mahewa now embraces 330 villages, did not then exist. Similarly the Jángres estate of Bhúr Dhaurahra, which

afterwards covered 800 square miles, did not exist even in the germ. The Ahbans estate of Bhúrwára existed in Akbar's time, but was much smaller and more divided, while the great Súrajbans estate of Khairigarh is a creation of 1858. In later times, there were four great families who held the lands now comprised in this District—namely, the Sayyids of Barwár, the Ahbans of Mitauli and Bhúrwára, the Janwárs of Kheri, and the Jángres of Dhaurahra.

Population.—The population of Kheri, according to the Census of 1869, amounted to 403,837 males and 342,513 females; total, 746,350 persons, dwelling in 1774 villages or townships, and 197,658 houses; average density of population, 245 per square mile. The Hindus numbered 671,686, or 89·9 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 74,307, or 10·1 per cent.; Christians, 96. The remaining 261 were composed of unclassified prisoners in jail. Allowing for recent transfers, the latest return gives the population at 739,283. The Bráhmans in 1869 numbered 60,512, or 9 per cent. of the Hindus; the Kshattriyas only 26,150, or less than 4 per cent. The most numerous caste is that of the Chamárs, who numbered 83,984, and next to them the Ahírs (69,383), Kurmís (67,113), Muráos (38,480), Kisáns (5526). The only remarkable feature presented by the population tables is the comparative scarcity of the higher castes—Bráhmans, Kshattriyas, Káyasths, and Vaisyas. They number altogether only 104,894, or 15 per cent. of the Hindus; in the whole Province they amount to 2,480,414, or almost 25 per cent. The reason of this is not far to seek. The low castes are the first, in all instances, to occupy the wilderness and reclaim it from nature, and much of Kheri District has but very recently been brought under cultivation. There was little to invite the Bráhman or Kshattriya. There are very few temples, and none of ancient repute; consequently the priestly class is not numerous. Population was so thin that disputes about boundaries, that fertile source of internal warfare, were comparatively rare, and but few professional soldiers were required. The District, too, was so distant from any seat of Government, that there could be little interference with the great landholders, who found it more profitable in many cases to have low-caste industrious tenants than the prouder Aryans. The Játs in Kheri number 4031 out of a total of 10,800 in the whole Province. Among the Musalmáns, there are only 4049 Shaikhs and Sayyids; Rohilla Patháns number 15,590, and Mughals 1054. Among the lower orders of Musalmáns, the most numerous are the Juláhas or weavers, who number 9599, and the Ghosis or cattle-dealers and milkmen 7065.

All the towns now existing are of recent foundation. Kheri was founded in the 16th century, Muhamdi and Aurangábád in the 17th. Of their origin one common tale is told. The Musalmán or Kshattriya founder came through the woods and marshes (the country then lying

much lower than now), and seized upon the slight hills or hummocks, where some Pási or Ahír patriarch ruled over a few mud huts. The rightful owner fled deeper into the forest, and the intruder built a block house or a brick fort to guard against his return. Only 3 towns were returned in 1869 as containing upwards of 5000 inhabitants—viz. KHERI, MUHAMDI, and OEL, with a total population of 19,087; 21 other towns contain between 2000 and 3000 inhabitants, aggregating 61,573 people, making the total urban population of Kheri to be 80,660. LAKHIMPUR, the civil station, is the only municipality in the District.

Agriculture.—The chief agricultural product is rice, the area under this crop being returned at 166,811 acres. The area under other crops is thus returned:—Wheat, 135,081 acres; other food grains, 851,133; oil-seeds, 29,380; sugar-cane, 41,065; cotton, 6739; tobacco, 5265; vegetables, 6644; fibres, 419 acres. Opium and indigo are also cultivated. The rice produced is of excellent quality, but its cultivation is carried on in a very slovenly manner. There are two harvests in the year, the *kharíf* or autumn crop, consisting of rice, *kodo*, *kákan*, *joár*, *bájra*, *mas*, and *múg*, sown from June to August, and reaped between the end of September and the beginning of November. The *rabí* or spring crops are barley, wheat, gram, peas, and *arhar*, cut between March and June. The people are employed principally in the cultivation of the soil as tenants. They employ in this labour 88,857 ploughs, 251,637 bullocks, and 15,297 buffaloes, upon 825,630 acres of land, of which 35,249 acres are covered with mango groves. North of the river Ul, land is hardly ever manured, and never irrigated, except the small gardens in which tobacco and vegetables are grown. South of the Ul, a fair amount of labour is bestowed upon the crops in this respect, although less than is usual in the rest of Oudh. The Kurmís, who form the most skilful body of cultivators in the District, are in general tolerably well off; but the mass of the low-caste husbandmen merely live from hand to mouth. Rents, although not high, are very uneven. The highest rates seem to be £1, 13s. per acre for tobacco, and £1, 7s. per acre for sugar-cane land, in Haidarábád *parganá*. Common rates are from 12s. to 16s. per acre for ordinary land near the village suitable for wheat. The lowest rented lands are the outlying patches far from the sites of villages, in Pália, Kukrá, and Bhúr, where the ordinary rate is 2s. per acre, but even 1s. an acre is met with. Tenants settle on the lands at these rates, which are raised as population increases. The nominal rents were much the same under the native rulers as at present. The principal landholding castes are the Jángre, Raikwár, Surájbans, and Janwár Kshattriyas, Síkhs, and Sayyids. Four estates in Kheri each measure over 100,000 acres. Nine landholders hold estates in this or other Districts averaging about 220 square miles each. There are 12 proprietors holding more than

20,000 acres each; their estates average 77,000 acres or 120 square miles in Kheri alone; they hold 1435 square miles, or more than half the District, and they control a population of about 400,000 in this District, and of at least a million in Oudh. The rest of the villages (656) are owned by *zamíndárs*, many of whom have 2 or 3 villages; there are 780 of these men. There are also a number of subordinate tenures, of which 873 have been decreed in the courts. The cultivators have no fixity of tenure. Out of 1690 villages, Kshattriya landlords are returned as holding 850; Muhammadans, 353; Káyasths, 116; Bráhmans, 88; and Europeans, 98. The average price of food grains for the ten years ending 1870 is returned as follows:—Unhusked rice, 34 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4d. per cwt.; common rice, 17 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 7d. per cwt.; best rice, 7 *sers* per rupee, or 16s. per cwt.; wheat, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.; barley, 34 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.; *joár*, 31 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 7d. per cwt. In 1870, the average rates were as follows:—Unhusked rice, 26½ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 3d. per cwt.; common rice, 13 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. 7d. per cwt.; best rice, 5½ *sers* per rupee, or £1 per cwt.; wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; barley, 31 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6½d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 36 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 1d. per cwt.; *joár*, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The District is liable to blights, droughts, and floods, the former, however, doing but little damage. Inundations are very destructive in Dhaurahra, Srínagar, and Firozábád *parganás*, from the overflow of the Chauká; and in Kheri and Haidarábád *parganás*, from the local rainfall causing the *jhíls* and marshes to overflow into the neighbouring fields. Muhamdi, Magdapur, Páila, and Khairigarh have good drainage generally, and do not suffer from floods. Hailstorms seldom occur. Severe famines occurred in 1769, in 1778-84, and in 1837, while there has been scarcity in 1865, in 1869, and in 1874; all these were caused by drought. The price of coarse grain reached 7 *sers* during these famine times; but whenever the cheapest wholesome grain in the market, whether it be *kodo*, maize, or barley, be priced for any length of time at a higher rate than 15 *sers* for the rupee, there will undoubtedly be famine. In January 1874, the cheapest grain reached 18 *sers*. As in other Districts of Oudh, the periods in which famine is most to be apprehended are the two months before the *rabí* harvest is cut, January and February, and the two months before the *kharíf* harvest ripens, July and August. There is perhaps less danger of famine in Kheri than in the adjoining District of Bahráich, because the sugar-cane crop in January, which is an exceptionally large one, mitigates the winter scarcity, and the early half-ripe Indian corn or *makái* in August is used by those who have nothing left from their *rabí* harvest.

Roads, Manufactures, Trade, etc.—There are no metalled roads in Kheri, except the line from Sháhjahánpur to Sítápur, which passes for 21 miles through the south-west corner of the District. One raised and bridged road runs from Sítápur through Oel to Lakhimpur, 28 miles, thence to Gola 20 miles, and thence to Muhamdi 18 miles. Total length of roads, 303 miles. The manufactures of the District are confined to weaving and cotton printing, carried on in Kheri *parganá*, but only to meet local requirements. Grain of all kinds is exported, as also are turmeric, tobacco, timber, sugar, syrup, hides, bullocks, and *ghí*. Catechu is made in large quantities throughout the northern parts of the District, from the *khair* tree (Acacia catechu), the heart-wood of which is chopped out and boiled down by a caste called Khairís. *Khas-khas* (Andropogon muricatum), the roots of which are used for matting *tatti* screens, is exported in large quantities to Benares and Patna. Two great annual religious trading fairs are held at Gola Gokarannáth—one in January attended by about 50,000 people, and the other in February, lasting about fifteen days, at which 150,000 persons are said to assemble. This great fair is increasing rapidly in importance; goods to the value of about £15,000 being sold annually by traders from all parts of India. The principal trading *gháts* or landing-places in the District are Dulhámau and Pachperi on the Chauka, and Shitábi and Katái *gháts* on the Kauriála, whence grain is exported by means of flat-bottomed boats to Lucknow and Patná. The imports, which consist mainly of cotton, salt, country cloth, and English piece-goods, considerably exceed the exports in value.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, Kheri District is divided into 3 *tahsíls* and 17 *parganás*, as follows:—(1) Lakhimpur *tahsíl*, comprising Kheri, Srínagar, Bhúr, Pailá, and Kukrá Mailáni *parganás*; (2) Nighásan *tahsíl*, comprising Firozábád, Dhaurahra, Nighásan, Khairigarh, and Pália *parganás*; (3) Muhamdi *tahsíl*, comprising Muhamdi, Pasgawán, Aurangábád, Kásta, Haidarábád, Magdapur, and Atwa Pipária,—all of which see separately. The administration is conducted by a Deputy Commissioner, with one or more Assistant Commissioners, and the usual staff of subordinates. The total revenue in 1870 amounted to £74,132, of which £62,471, or six-sevenths of the total, was derived from the land tax, which is increasing every year. Total cost of administration in 1870, £29,594; but this included the expenses of the Survey Department, then engaged in making a new Land Settlement. For police purposes, Kheri is divided into 7 police circles (*thánás*); the force, including regular police, village watch, and municipal police, numbered, in 1873, 2936 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £15,106. In 1873, the police made 1236 arrests, and out of 1903 cases sent to the magistrates, obtained convictions in 1416. Average daily number of

prisoners in jail in 1875, 202; total number imprisoned during the year (783 males and 75 females), 858. In respect of education, Kheri is the most backward District of Oudh. There are 3 Anglo-vernacular schools, attended by 367 pupils, besides 12 vernacular schools with 467 pupils.

Climate.—The climate of Kheri is reckoned by the natives very malarious beyond the Ul, and healthy south of that river. The heat is less than in the surrounding Districts. The mean annual temperature is returned at 79·60° F.; but the average heat at 2 P.M., the hottest period of the day in May 1870, the hottest month, was only 94°; the average for the Province being 104°. In the sun's rays the temperature sometimes reaches 137°. The rainfall is above the average of the Province. Cold winds following the course of the rivers sweep from the Nepál plateaux through the mountain gorges, and meeting the already saturated atmosphere of the plains, cool it, and precipitate moisture first on the lowlands at their base. The hot vapours from the plains are also cooled by the vast forests which clothe the uplands, and, being no longer able to carry so much water, discharge it in rain. The average rainfall during the eleven years ending 1874 amounted to 47·3 inches, the maximum being 70·2 inches in 1870, and the minimum 30·4 in 1868.

Medical Aspects.—The disease most common in this District is intermittent fever, which appears to be endemic in the neighbourhood of Gokarannáth. Its origin is assigned to the malaria produced by the spontaneous decomposition of vegetable matter after the cessation of the rains, and by imperfect drainage. European and native constitutions suffer alike from its attacks. Spring fever appears mostly among those whose agrarian pursuits expose them to the noon-day sun. It assumes a remittent type, and is proportionately more fatal as summer advances. Next in the order of frequency are bowel complaints. As a rule, they increase at harvest-time, and have a fatal tendency when succulent fruit and vegetables become abundant in the market. Cholera became epidemic in this District during the rains of 1867, and was most fatal and persistent in those villages where filth most abounded. In Lakhimpur town, the scourge was apparently introduced on *bázár* days, or only occurred sporadically. Pulmonic and rheumatic affections increase in winter. Of cutaneous affections, herpes deserves notice; it is very prevalent among the natives. It seems to be acquired from the practice of keeping on a *dhoti* while bathing, and replacing it by a clean one without drying the skin. The disease is seen chiefly about the hips and loins of those affected, and does not yield readily to treatment; strong acetic acid externally is the best remedy. Leprosy is not an uncommon disease. Goitre is most common among the trans-Chauka population. The quality of the water is supposed

to be the cause of this disease. Its local distribution is unaccountably capricious, but, as a rule, the great majority of the cases occur within 2 miles of the river bank, particularly in Dhaurahra and Pália *parganás*. Venereal diseases are common, and frequently seen in their secondary and tertiary forms, a fact attributable to neglect or improper treatment of the primary symptoms. Among ophthalmic disorders, those most prevalent are ophthalmia and nyctalopia; they occur principally in summer. Cataract among the aged is not uncommon. Dropsies of the skin and abdomen are often seen in subjects who have long suffered from marsh fever and enlarged spleen. Cattle plague made its appearance in the District in 1870 and 1871, and it is estimated that about one-fourth of the cattle in the District died, viz. 120,000, of an estimated value of £120,000. Cattle murrain is said to have been unknown prior to this epidemic.

Kheri.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh; lying between the Ul and Jamwári rivers on the east and south-west respectively, and bounded on the north-west by Páila, and on the south by Sítápur *parganá*. Area, 193 square miles, of which 130 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 104,916, viz. 88,920 Hindus and 15,996 Musalmáns. The *parganá* is roughly divided into two parts. One is an upland plateau, largely irrigated from *jhíls* and wells, which contains three-quarters of the total area, nearly all high-class loam soil. To the north-east of this plateau, along its whole length, lies a slope, 1 or 2 miles in breadth, of lighter soil, which suddenly sinks into the *tarái* of the Ul. Farther to the south-east, the Kewáni river has formed a very extensive *tarái* of first-class land, separated from the Ul *tarái*, as far as the borders of this District, by a promontory of high land running south-east from the main plateau. This *tarái* is at a level nearly 60 feet beneath the upper ground. Down the centre of the *parganá* runs a series of marshy lakes. They collect the water of the plateau, which is slightly saucer-shaped. The southern edge is formed by the high bank of the Jamwári, as the northern is by the bank of the Ul. The lakes communicate in the rains, and generally there is a slight stream running through to Muhammadpur, where the channel becomes perennial and joins the Kewáni. Unfortunately, however, this outlet is not sufficient, and the overflow from the lakes spreads over a great area, as the lowest point of the plateau is only 11 feet lower than the highest. A part of the water also from these great *jhíls*, in heavy rain, seeks an outlet through LAKHIMPUR station to the Ul, and five persons were drowned or killed by the floods and falling houses in 1870. This series of lakes offers good facilities for constructing small irrigation channels, which will be more required every year. Kheri is well supplied with groves. Bisens appear to have been the earliest landlords in Muhammadan times, having ousted the Pásis. The whole *parganá*, how-

ever, afterwards became part of the great estate formed by the Barwár Sayyids. This family, however, has decayed; and out of the 193 villages now forming the *parganá*, 138 are held by Kshattriyas. Small local traffic in grain, and settlements of weavers and cotton printers.

Kheri.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh; situated in lat. 27° 54′ N., long. 80° 51′ E. Pop. (according to Census of 1869), 7001; by recent Settlement papers, it has been returned at 5037, of whom 3035 are Muhammadans and 2002 Hindus. The only place in the District which has any appearance of a town; it contains 74 masonry houses, more than one-half of the whole number in the District. Daily market, 14 Hindu temples, 12 mosques, and 3 *imámbáras*. The one object of antiquarian interest is the tomb of Sayyid Khurd, who died in 971 A.H. or 1563 A.D., a building composed of huge *kankar* blocks.

Kherkeriá.—Village in Bhután, near the Lakshmi *nadí*, just beyond the northern frontier of Darrang District, Assam. An annual fair is held here, which is largely attended by people from considerable distances. In 1875, the Bhutiás are estimated to have sold goods valued at £1700, chiefly salt, blankets, ponies, gold, and a spice called *jabrang;* and to have bought goods to the value of £1600, chiefly rice, silk cloth, cotton cloth, dried fish, and hardware.

Kherna.—Seaport in Tanna District, Bombay. The average annual value of trade during the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £151; exports, £2363.

Kheura.—Village in Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab.—*See* MAYO MINES.

Khijaria.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £240.

Khijria.—One of the petty States of Gohelwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £240. Tribute of £38 is payable to the British Government, and £4 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Khijudia Nagáni.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue (1876), £100. Tribute of £5 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Khilchipur.—One of the States in the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India; a tributary of Gwalior. Lat. 23° 52′–24° 17′ N., long. 76° 28′–76° 45′ E. Chief products—grain and opium. The present Chief of Khilchipur is Amar Sinh, a Khichi Rájput, who since his accession in 1869 has received the title of Rao from the British Government. He was adopted by the widow of the late Chief, and the adoption was confirmed by Sindhia. The area of the State is estimated at 204 square miles; its pop. (1875) at 35,500

persons; and its revenue at £17,500. The Chief pays tribute of £1313 to Sindhia through the Political Agent in Bhopál. He maintains a force of 40 horse and 200 foot.

Khimlása.—Town in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; 42 miles north-west of Ságar town. Lat. 24° 12′ 30″ N., long. 78° 24′ 30″ E.; pop. about 2500. A stone wall 20 feet high surrounds the town, enclosing a space of 63 acres; and the fort, which is built on high ground in the centre, occupies 5 acres. Within the fort are the police station-house and two remarkable edifices. One, a Muhammadan building, apparently the burial-place of some saint, consisted of a square structure, surmounted by a lofty dome. The dome has fallen, but the side walls remain; they are formed of enormous slabs of stone, about an inch and a half thick, cut with the most beautiful fretwork designs right through the stone, so that the pattern is visible both within and without the building. The other is of Hindu origin, and was apparently a *shísha mahál* or glass palace. The upper of the two storeys contained an apartment fitted with mirrors, many traces of which still remain. Khimlása originally belonged to a dependent of the Delhi Emperor, but was taken by the Rájá of Panna in 1695, on the death of whose son without heirs in 1746, the representative of the Peshwá at Ságar occupied the fort. It was made over to the British with Ságar in 1818. From that date the town was the headquarters of a *tahsíl*, till in 1834 the *tahsíli* was moved to Kurái. In July 1857, during the Mutiny, when the Bhánpur Rájá occupied Kurái, he also seized Khimlása, and the town has not yet recovered from the damage done by his troops. Though the streets are narrow and irregular, the houses are generally well built, but many are still ownerless. Little trade takes place, though a market is held every Sunday. Two schools for boys and girls respectively have been established.

Khindoli.— *Tahsíl* in Agra District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KHANDAULI.

Khipra.—*Táluk* or revenue Subdivision in the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency, Sind; situated between 25° 26′ and 26° 14′ 45″ N. lat., and 69° 2′ 45″ and 70° 16′ E. long. Area, about 3114 square miles; pop. (1872), 45,145. Revenue, £13,975, of which £12,659 is derived from imperial, and £1316 from local sources.

Khipra.—Municipal town in above *taluk*, Thar and Párkar, Sind; situated on the Eastern Nára, about 40 miles north-west of Umarkot town. Lat. 25° 49′ 30″ N., long. 69° 25′ E.; pop. (1872), 1227, consisting of 1016 Hindus (principally Bráhmans, Lohános, Bhíls, and Mengwárs) and 211 Musalmáns (of the Baluch, Kháskeli, Kalhorá, and Hingoro tribes). Municipal revenue in 1873-74, £236; expenditure, £217. Headquarters station of a *mukhtiyárkár* and *tappadár*; civil and criminal court-houses; police post; *dharmsála* or rest-house. Occupation of

the inhabitants principally agricultural. Manufactures consist chiefly in weaving and dyeing of cloth; local trade in cotton, wool, cocoa-nuts, metals, grain, sugar, tobacco, etc. Transit trade—grain, cattle, wool, *ghí*, indigo, sugar, and cloth. The town is supposed to have been founded about a century ago by one Hálá Mari.

Khiron.—*Parganá* of Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Mauránwán; on the east by Dalamau and Rái Bareli; on the south by Sareni; and on the west by Panhán, Bhagwantnagar, Bihár, and Pátan. Pop. (1869), 57,102, viz. 54,341 Hindus and 2761 Muhammadans. Area, 102 square miles, or 65,096 acres. Government land revenue, £10,138; average rate per acre, 3s. 1⅜d. Of the 123 villages forming the *parganá*, 86 are held under *tálukdárí* tenure; 19 are *zamíndárí*, 10 *pattidárí*, and 8 revenue-free grants. Five market villages. Two large annual fairs. The *parganá* was originally in the possession of the Bhars, who were ousted some 700 years ago by Rájá Abhái Chánd of the Bais clan, who annexed it to his dominions, and his descendants still form the main proprietary body. Rájá Sátna, eighth in descent from Abhái Chand, founded a village, calling it after his own name Sátanpur, which he also bestowed upon the whole *parganá*. This arrangement remained till the time of Nawáb Asaf-ud-daulá, when the *tahsíldár* of the *parganá* built a fort in Khiron, which he fixed on as the seat of the *tahsíl*, and renamed the *parganá* after it.

Khiron.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated on the road from Rái Bareli to Cawnpore. Pop. (1869), 3480, viz. 2798 Hindus and 682 Muhammadans. The residence of one of the *parganá tálukdárs* is in the village; in which also dwell some notable old families of the Káyasth *kánúngos*. Vernacular school; weekly market.

Khirpái.—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal; situated on the main road from Bardwán to Midnapur town. Transferred, with the surrounding country, from Húglí to Midnapur in 1872. Principally inhabited by cotton-weavers, who manufacture fabrics of a superior quality, which commands a high price.

Khisor Hills.—Range in Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab, known also under the name of KAFIR KOT; situated between 32° 13′ and 32° 34′ N. lat., and between 70° 56′ and 71° 21′ E. long. The Indus washes their eastern base for a distance of some 30 miles, after which the chain sweeps slightly westward, parallel to the Shaikh Budín Hills, from which it is separated by the Paniála valley, having an average breadth of 5 miles. The ruins of an ancient fort, perched on a projecting spur, overlooking the Indus lowlands, at the point where the range trends westwards, have given it the title of Káfir Kot. The hills consist of miocene sandstone and conglomerate, superimposed upon jurassic and carboniferous limestone, in which

fossils occur abundantly. The range has a total length of about 50 miles, a breadth of 6 miles, and an elevation in its highest peak of little over 3000 feet. Its northern extremity juts into the District of Bannu.

Kholapur.—Town in Amráoti District, Berar; 18 miles west of Amráoti town. Lat. 20° 55′ 30″ N., long. 77° 33′ 30″ E.; pop. (1867), 6169. Silk trade was once considerable. In 1809, the *subahdár* of Ellichpur, Vithal Bhág Deo, demanded a contribution of 1 *lákh* of rupees; and on payment being refused, he besieged and captured the town, which was sacked by his troops. Its rapid decadence may also be partly attributable to the annual fights between the Musalmáns and the Rájputs, when the victorious party always took occasion to plunder at least part of the town.

Kholpetuá.—River in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; an offshoot of the KABADAK near Asásuní. It first keeps a westerly course for a short distance, and, after receiving the waters of the Budhátá Gáng, turns to the south till it is joined by the GALGHASIA, whence the united river flows through the Sundarbans till it falls again into the Kabadak, a few miles above the place where that river in its turn empties itself into the PANGASI. The Kholpetuá is a river of little note, except for the great breadth which it assumes after it is joined by the Galghasiá, the width of the channel increasing from 150 to 600 yards in a course of 16 miles.

Khora.—Village in Khairpur State, Sind; situated on the Abulwáro Canal, about 20 miles from Khairpur town, and on the postal road between Haidarábád (Hyderábád) and Múltán (Mooltan). Pop. (1872), 3675, consisting chiefly of Musalmáns, who are engaged in weaving coarse cotton cloths.

Khosháb. — *Tahsíl* and town in Sháhpur District, Punjab. — *See* KHUSHAB.

Khudábád.—Ruined town in Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind; 30 miles north of Haidarábád town. Lat. 25° 48′ N., long. 68° 32′ E. With regard to this place, Thornton says: 'Little more than thirty years ago it rivalled Haidarábád in size and population, yet now not one habitable dwelling remains. It was a favourite residence of the Tálpur chiefs of Sind, and the remains of many of them rest here in tombs of neat but plain construction.'

Khudián.—Town in Lahore District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 59′ 30″ N., long. 74° 19′ 15″ E.; pop. (1869), 3108.

Khújji.—A small chiefship in Ráipur District, Central Provinces; 70 miles south-west of Ráipur town; comprising 27 villages, in an open country. The chief is a Muhammadan. Khújji village is situated in lat. 21° 57′ N., long. 81° 57′ 30″ E.

Khulná.—Subdivision of Jessor District, Bengal; situated between

21° 41′ 45″ and 23° 1′ N. lat., and between 89° 12′ 30″ and 89° 47′ 15″ E. long. Area, 695 square miles; with 549 villages or towns, 44,334 houses, and a pop. (1872) of 324,001, viz. Hindus, 155,149, or 47·9 per cent.; Muhammadans, 168,153, or 51·9 per cent.; Christians, 88; 'others,' 611, or ·2 per cent.; total, 324,001, viz. 175,124 males and 148,877 females. Proportion of males, 54·5; density of population, 466 per square mile; villages, ·78 per square mile; persons per village, 590; houses per square mile, 61; persons per house, 7·7. This Subdivision, which was constituted in 1842, comprises the 4 police circles (*thánás*) of Khulná, Baitághátá, Dumriá, and Delutí. In 1870-71, it contained 2 magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police force of 84 men, besides 565 village watchmen; cost of Subdivisional administration, £2468.

Khulná.—Headquarters of above Subdivision, and of a police circle (*thánā*), in Jessor District, Bengal; situated at the point where the Bhairab river meets the Sundarbans. Lat. 22° 49′ 10″ N., long. 89° 36′ 55″ E. Khulná may be described as the capital of the Sundarbans; and for the last hundred years at least it has been a place of considerable importance. It was the headquarters of the salt department during the period of the Company's salt manufacture. The whole boat traffic from the east and north-east passes here on its way to Calcutta: rice from Dacca and Bákarganj; lime, lemons, and oranges from Sylhet; mustard seed, linseed and pulse from Pábná, Rájsháhí, and Farídpur; clarified butter (*ghí*) from Patná; and firewood from the Sundarbans. From Calcutta, the principal cargo is Liverpool salt, the trade in which is very considerable. Numerous sugar refineries exist. Three market-places, of which the most important, Sen's Bázár, is situated on the east and the other two on the west bank of the river.

Khumblao. — One of the petty States in Jhaláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876 was £457. Tribute of £73 is payable to the British Government, and £13 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Khun.—Port and Lighthouse, Ahmedábád District, Bombay.—*See* DHOLERA.

Khund (or *Kund*).—Valley in Kashmír State, Punjab, on the northern side of the Pir-Panjál Mountain. Lat. 33° 32′ N., long. 75° 10′ E. Thornton describes it as three miles long, picturesque, well cultivated, and possessing a cool climate. Elevation above sea level, 6000 feet.

Khundalu.—Lake in Hindúr State, Punjab, among the range of hills extending from the Sutlej (Satlaj) to the Siwálik chain. Lat. 31° 10′ N., long. 76° 47′ E. Thornton states that it varies in length from 1½ mile in dry weather to 2½ miles during the rains; depth, 138 feet. Winding shore, enclosed by hills, and clothed with vegetation to the water's edge. Elevation above sea level, about 2800 feet.

Khurdhá.—Subdivision of Purí District, Orissa; situated between 19° 40′ 30″ and 20° 25′ 15″ N. lat., and 85° 0′ 15″ and 85° 56′ E. long. Area, 943 square miles; with 1049 villages, 47,928 houses, and a pop. (1872) of 280,923, viz. Hindus, 258,708, or 92·1 per cent.; Muhammadans, 5694, or 2·0 per cent.; Christians, 42; 'others,' 16,479, or 5·9 per cent.; total, 280,923, viz. 140,784 males and 140,139 females. Density of population, 298 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·11; persons per village, 267; houses per square mile, 51; persons per house, 5·7. This Subdivision comprises the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Khurdhá, Tánghi, and Bánpur. Khurdhá formed the last portion of territory held by the independent Hindu dynasty of Orissa. The Marhattá cavalry were unable to overrun this jungle-covered and hilly tract; and the ancient royal house retained much of its independence until 1804, when the Rájá rebelled against the British Government, and his territory was confiscated. A rising on the part of the peasantry took place in 1817-18, arising in great measure through the oppression of underling Bengalí officials. The insurrection was speedily quelled, reforms were introduced, and grievances redressed. At the present day Khurdhá is a profitable and well-managed Government estate, and the cultivators are a contented and generally prosperous class. Since 1804, the Rájá has possessed no independent powers, but he was held in great veneration by the people as the hereditary guardian of the Jagannáth temple. The late holder of the title was convicted of wilful murder in 1878, and sentenced to penal servitude in the Andaman Islands.

Khurdhá.—Headquarters of above Subdivision, and of a police circle (*thání*) in Purí District, Orissa; situated on the high road from Cuttack to Ganjám in Madras. Lat. 20° 10′ 49″ N., long. 85° 40′ 12″ E. Between 1818 and 1828, Khurdhá was the headquarters of the District, which in the latter year was transferred to PURI TOWN.

Khurja.—South-western *tahsíl* of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; stretching from the Jumna to the East Káli Nadi, and traversed by the East Indian Railway, and by three branches of the Ganges Canal. Area, 460 square miles, of which 322 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 221,176; land revenue, £30,507; total Government revenue, £33,561; rental paid by cultivators, £69,619; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 0⅞d.

Khurja.—Municipal town and chief commercial centre of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 28° 15′ 25″ N., long. 77° 53′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 26,858, consisting of 15,543 Hindus and 11,315 Muhammadans. Distant from Bulandshahr 10 miles south, from Alígarh 30 miles north, from Meerut (Mírath) and Delhi 50 miles south and south-east respectively. Chief trading town between Delhi and Háthras; railway station on East Indian Railway

$3\frac{1}{2}$ miles south,—meeting-place of Delhi and Meerut (Mírath) branches of Grand Trunk Road. Principal inhabitants, Keshgi Patháns and Churúwál Banias; the latter an enterprising and a wealthy class, carrying on banking over all India by means of paid agencies. One of them has an establishment in China. Poor-looking streets, and tortuous lanes; defective sanitary arrangements. Gorgeous Jain temple, lately erected in the centre of the town, its dome and gilded pinnacle towering above every other building, and forming a conspicuous landmark from every side. Handsome interior, faced with richly carved stone, and pierced by ornamental lattices, one blaze of gold and colours; vault of dome painted and ornamented in the most florid style of Hindu decorative art. *Tahsíli*, with police station and post office combined, dispensary, town hall, *tahsíli* school. Chief trade in raw cotton, of which about 70,000 cwts. are annually exported to Cawnpore, Mírzápur, and Calcutta; eight cotton presses at work in the town. Imports of English piece-goods, metals, country cloth, and brass utensils. Local trade in cotton, safflower, indigo, sugar, molasses, grain, rice, and *ghí*. The population has rapidly increased during the last thirty years. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £1843; expenditure, £1774; incidence of taxation, 1s. $2\frac{1}{4}$d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Khusháb.—Western *tahsíl* of Sháhpur District, Punjab; consisting of that portion of the District lying west of the Jhelum (Jhilam) river. Lat. 31° 31′ 45″–32° 41′ 30″ N., long. 71° 38′ 30″–72° 40′ 45″ E. The greater part is unproductive land, but a narrow strip along the edge of the river, exposed to its fertilizing inundations, produces good crops.

Khusháb.—Municipal town in Sháhpur District, Punjab, and headquarters of Khusháb *tahsíl;* situated on the right bank of the river Jhelum (Jhilam), on the road from Lahore to Derá Ismáil Khán. Lat. 32° 17′ 40″ N., long. 72° 23′ 51″ E.; pop. (1868), 8509, consisting of 2985 Hindus, 5217 Muhammadans, 119 Síkhs, and 188 'others.' Year by year the water eats away the bank, so that the inhabitants are continually driven out of their homes and compelled to build on the farther side of the town. Flourishing trade with Múltán (Mooltan), Sakkar, Afghánistán, and the Deráját. Exports of grain, cotton, wool, *ghí*, and country cloth; imports of English piece-goods, metal, dried fruits, sugar, and molasses. Chief mart for the trade of the salt range; numbers of cattle are employed in taking salt eastward, and bringing back rice and sugar. Manufacture of coarse cloth and cotton scarves; 600 weaving establishments. Town hall, *tahsíli*, school, dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £953, or 2s. $2\frac{3}{8}$d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Khutahan.—Northern *tahsíl* of Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 367 square miles, of which 213 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 237,536 souls; land revenue, £22,597; total Government

revenue, £24,804; rental paid by cultivators, £39,004; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 11⅛d.

Khutgáon.—Chiefship in Chánda District, Central Provinces; 20 miles south-east of Wairágarh; comprising about 50 villages. Khutgáon village is situated in lat. 20° 11′ N., long. 80° 14′ E.

Khwa.—Small river of British Burma, forming a portion of the boundary between the Arakan and Pegu Divisions. It takes its rise in the western slopes of the Arakan Yoma range. After a south-south-west course of about 20 miles it turns to the west for about 10 miles, and then north-north-west for 10 more, when it opens out into the Bay of Bengal, a short distance below the village of the same name. Its mouth forms a good harbour; but the entrance is rendered difficult by a bar of sand, on which during the ebb there are not more than 2¼ fathoms of water. It is affected by the tide as far as Than-ga-ta-rwa during neap, and Pien-ne-gun-rwa during spring tides, and small boats can ascend as high as the former with the flood. Larger boats cannot go farther up than Un-mheng-rwa, which can be reached in one tide.

Khwa.—The headquarters of the southern township of Sandoway District, British Burma; on the right bank of the Khwa river, about a mile above its mouth. Lat. 17° 34′ N., long. 94° 39′ E. It has been much improved of late years, and is well laid out with broad straight roads, crossing at right angles, one of which has been extended to the neighbouring village of Ta-man-gún. The one or two tidal creeks which run up into the village are crossed by wooden foot-bridges, built principally by the people themselves, who also made the roads. The village is buried in a grove of fruit-trees—mango, tamarind, jack, cocoa-nut, etc. The houses are generally large and good, with timber posts, mat walls, and thatched roofs. A little trade during the favourable seasons of the year is carried on by sea with parts of Bassein District farther south, and Chinese junks occasionally anchor off the village. Court-house and police station. The population, including that of the adjoining villages of Ta-man-gún, Alay-rwa, and Khyeng-tsú, was 1088 in 1875 (of whom nearly all were Burmese, with a few Khyengs (52) and natives of India, and only 6 Arakanese), and 1303 in 1877.

Khwa-lek-wai.—Revenue circle in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma; stretches along the right bank of the Khwa, and includes the once independent circle of Rahaing. Pop. (1876), 2339; gross revenue, £868.

Khwa-lek-ya.—Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the left bank of the Khwa river, between the Arakan Yomas on the east and the Bay of Bengal on the west. The whole of this circle is a mountainous and forest-covered tract, with patches of rice cultivation on the hill slopes and towards the sea-coast. Pop. (1876), 2460; gross revenue, £349.

Khya-ra-gún.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 1661; gross revenue, £452.

Khyber.—Mountain Pass leading from Pesháwar District, Punjab, into Afghánistán.—*See* KHAIBAR.

Khyouk-rwa.—Revenue circle in the Ut-hpo Township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the right bank of the Bassein river; hilly in the west. Pop. (1876), 7776; gross revenue, £1552.

Khyouk-tshay.—Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 30 square miles; only partially cultivated, the country being low and subject to inundation. Pop. (1876), 2485, engaged in agriculture and fishing; gross revenue, £536.

Khyoung-bya.—Revenue circle in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 265 square miles; pop. (1876), 2062; gross revenue, £215.

Khyoung-gyí.—Revenue circle in the Central Township of Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma; consists for the most part of a hilly and uncultivable tract; chief product, tobacco. Pop. (1876), 1072; gross revenue, £198.

Khyoung-tshún.—Village in Bhílú-gywon island, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated on the edge of the low hills forming the backbone of the island. The western portion is called Weng-tsien, and the eastern, Kha-raik-thit. On the west an artificial reservoir has been made by throwing an embankment across a valley; in the hot season its area is about 1 square mile, and its depth 10 feet, and in the rains very nearly double this. The Government has made a bridged opening at the western end as an escape, to prevent the water from overflowing the road crossing the embankment. Pop. (1876), 1958. Court-house and police station.

Khyrim (or *Nong Krem*). — Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam, presided over by a *siem* or chief called Kher Sinh. Pop. (1872), 20,504; estimated revenue, £1010. The minerals are lime, coal, and iron. The iron ore of Khyrim is the purest found in the Khási Hills. In former times, smelting operations were conducted on a large scale, as evidenced by the deep excavations and large heaps of slag. The greater part of the smelted iron used to be exported to the plains in lumps or bars, and was more highly valued than English iron by native smiths. Under the competition of the cheaper article from England, this trade has now died out; but at the present day, iron implements, such as *dáos* or hill-knives, *kodális* or mattocks, hammers, crow-bars, and wedges, are still manufactured and exported to Sylhet. Other manufactures are the weaving of cotton and *eriá* silk cloth, and the making of mats and baskets. The cultivated crops are rice, millet, cotton, potatoes, oranges, chillies, betel-nut, and *pán* leaves. The wild products

gathered in the jungle include caoutchouc, cinnamon, lac, black pepper, and honey.

Kiámári.—Island in Karáchi (Kurrachee) Harbour, Karáchi District, Sinh; lying in lat. 24° 49′ 15″ N., and long. 67° 2′ E., and forming one of the municipal quarters of KARACHI TOWN, with which it is connected by a road called the 'Napier Mole,' 3 miles long, constructed in 1854. Kiámári is the landing-place for passengers and goods destined for Karáchi, and contains 3 piers, a commissariat store, customs house, naval building-yard, etc. Station on the Sind Railway. Population (1872), 602 persons, residing in 144 houses.

Kiching.—Village in Singbhúm District, Bengal; situated in lat. 21° 55′ 30″ N., and long. 85° 52′ 30″ E., in a jungly tract in the south of the District, now inhabited only by aboriginal Kols; but ruined temples, tanks, and other architectural remains point to a more civilised population in ancient days. Two of the temples at Kiching are still visited by pilgrims, and are kept in some repair. The surrounding jungle is thickly scattered with fragments of elaborately sculptured idols, and human figures in alto-relievo. The two temples are said to have formed part of a series of 60 similar ones, placed 2 miles apart in a circle 40 miles in diameter, of which only these and some others at Udáipur on the Baitaraní are now visited.

Kidderpur.—Village on the left bank of the Húglí, immediately south of Calcutta, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 32′ 25″ N., long. 88° 22′ 18″ E. The seat of the Government dockyard, constructed in the last century by General Kyd, after whom the village is named. Between 1781 and 1821, 237 ships were built at the Kidderpur docks, at a cost of upwards of two millions sterling; and in 1818, the *Hastings*, a 74-gun ship, was launched here. The India General Steam Navigation Company have also a dock at Kidderpur, but neither this nor the Government yard are used now for shipbuilding, but merely for repairs, fitting out, etc.

Kiggat-nad.—*Táluk* or Subdivision in Coorg. Area, 504 square miles; number of villages, 63; number of houses, 3199; pop. (1871), 27,738, of whom 6094 are native Coorgs. Kiggat-nad occupies the south-east corner of Coorg, and is the most sparsely populated *táluk* in the territory. It is watered by the Lakshmantirtha river, and contains valuable forests of teak and other trees. Rice is cultivated along the narrow valleys of the hill streams. The whole area is mountainous, being traversed by spurs of the Brahmagiri range. Kiggat-nad village is situated in lat. 12° 15′ N., long. 75°.

Kiláng.—Village in Kángra District, Punjab; one of the principal places in the Láhúl Subdivision. Lat. 32° 34′ 15″ N., long. 77° 4′ E. Situated on the main trade route between the Rohtang and Bárá Láchá Passes, on the right bank of the river Bágha, about 4 miles above its

junction with the Chandra. Moravian mission; chapel; school, supported by Government grant and managed by the missionaries. Post office during the summer months.

Kilá Sobha Sinh.—Municipal town in Siálkot District, Punjab; 23 miles south-east of Siálkot. Lat. 32° 14′ N., long. 74° 48′ 15″ E.; pop. (1868), 5153, consisting of 1891 Hindus, 3054 Muhammadans, 42 Síkhs, and 166 'others.' Founded about a century since by Sardár Bhág Sinh, who erected a mud fort and called it after his son Sobha Sinh. Residence of a colony of Kashmírí shawl-weavers, who manufacture edging for exportation to Umritsar (Amritsar). Exports of sugar. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £228, or 10⅝d. per head of population (5157) within municipal limits.

Kiling (or *Um-iám*).—River of Assam, which rises in the Khási Hills in the Shillong range, and, flowing north-east into Nowgong District, empties into the Kalang offshoot of the Brahmaputra near Jágí, about 20 miles above the point where the Kalang rejoins the parent stream. Its bed is rocky throughout its entire course, but in the plains it is navigable by boats of 4 tons burthen during the greater part of the year. Um-iám is the Khási name of the river; in Nowgong it is called the Kiling.

Kiliyár.—River in Travancore State, Madras.

Kilkarái (the *Korkhoi* of the Periplus).—Seaport in Rámnád *táluk*, Madura District, Madras; situated in lat. 9° 14′ 20″ N., and long. 78° 50′ 10″ E., at the mouth of the Vigái. Pop. (1871), 11,303, chiefly Labbai Muhammadans; number of houses, 2805.

Killiánwála.—Battle-field in Gujrát District, Punjab.—*See* CHILIANWALA.

Kilpurí.—Eastern *tahsíl* of the Tarái District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a long submontane belt; much of it covered with forest. Area, 400 square miles, of which 71 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 51,480; land revenue, £2128; incidence of revenue per acre, 2d.

Kimidi.—A large *zamíndárí* hill tract, on the western border of Ganjám District, Madras. It contains the three estates of Parla Kimidi; Pedda or Boda Kimidi, also called Vizianágaram; and Chinna Kimidi or Pratápgiri. Pedda Kimidi lies north of Parla Kimidi, and pays a *peshkash* or permanently fixed revenue of £23,000. It contains (1871) 177 villages, 7897 houses, 40,810 inhabitants, and an area of 572 square miles, of which 377 square miles are hill or *máliyas.* Chinna Kimidi, the most northern division, pays a *peshkash* of £20,000, on an area of 189 square miles, with 115 villages, containing 5535 houses and (1871) 25,849 inhabitants. These two estates were formerly one, and were owned by a descendant of the royal house of Orissa. In 1768, Bhima Deo was Rájá of the whole country, and proved very trouble-

some to the British Resident. Troops were sent against him, and his fort at Karla was taken. The following year, in consequence of his suspected intrigues with Sítárám Rájá and the Marhattás, Pratápgiri, his principal stronghold, was seized. On this, the old Rájá accepted the terms offered him; but in 1772 it was again found necessary to enter the country. After a hard-fought contest, the British gained possession of all his forts, and the Rájá had to submit to strict conditions, including the partition of his estate between his two sons. This arrangement was fraught with most disastrous consequences to the country, for it led to ceaseless internecine struggles, lasting a quarter of a century. The brothers ravaged one another's territory, and burnt one another's villages, till in 1800 we threw them both into jail in Ganjám for disturbing the peace. They were replaced by their respective sons, who carried on the feud; and until very recently, although open hostilities were impossible, the feeling of hatred continued. The country is now peaceful and flourishing, and connected by road with the coast. The principal towns are Digupadi and Pudamuri.

Kimiriá.—A deltaic distributary of the Bráhmaní river, Cuttack District, Orissa, which branches off opposite the village of Rájendrapur, and, after receiving the waters of the Gengutí, Kelo, and Birúpa, falls again into the parent stream at the village of Indpur.

Kimlia.—Pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, over the outer Himálayan range, bounding Kunáwár to the north. Lat. 31° 14′ N., long. 78° 28′ E. Thornton states it can be crossed only during the months of May, June, and July; later in the year, the snow becomes treacherous, swallowing pack-sheep and goats, with their drivers. Elevation above sea level, about 17,000 feet.

Kinhi.—Chiefship of recent origin in Bálághát District, Central Provinces; comprising 54 villages, on an area of 159 square miles, partly above and partly below the hills. Kinhi, the chief village, is situated in lat. 21° 37′ N., and long. 80° 29′ E., 25 miles south-east of Búrha. The present chiefs trace their descent from the head herdsman of the Gond and Bhonslá kings of Nágpur, who tended the royal flocks on the upland pastures of Lánjí. Since the estate was divided into eight shares, its value has greatly decreased.

Kirákut.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying on either side of the river Gumti. Area, 171 square miles, of which 118 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 114,167; land revenue, £11,695; total Government revenue, £12,790; rental paid by cultivators, £16,701; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. $1\frac{5}{8}$d.

Kíratpur.—Town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 30′ 5″ N., long. 78° 15′ 5″ E.; pop. (1872), 9579. Lies on the road from Najíbábád to Bijnaur. Founded about the year 1450,

in the reign of Bahlol Lodi. Agricultural centre, of purely local importance.

Kírki (*Kirkee* or *Khadkı*).—Town in the Haveli Subdivision of Poona District, Bombay. Station on the south-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 115 miles south-east of Bombay and 4 north-west of Poona. Kírki itself lies in lat. 18° 33′ N., and long. 73° 54′ E., and, together with the adjoining town of Ghorpadi and Manori (in lat. 18° 30′ N., and long. 73° 56′ E.), contains 28,450 inhabitants. There is a military cantonment at Kírki, with a total population (1871) of 3098 persons, lodged in 506 houses. Post office.

Kirnápur.—Estate in Bálághát District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1870), 21,251, residing in 25 villages, on an area of 40 square miles. Conferred in 1828 upon Chimná Patel, the once powerful possessor of Kámtha and the surrounding *táluks*. Kirnápur, the principal town, and residence of the chief, stands on high ground, in lat. 21° 39′ N., and long. 80° 22′ E., 16 miles south-east of Búrha, and contains some ancient temples. It has a good Government school, and a police outpost, and the District post to Lánjí passes daily.

Kirran (or *Sáki*).—River in Gurdáspur and Amritsar (Umritsar) Districts, Punjab; rises in lat. 32° 8′ N., and long. 75° 30′ E., in the extensive swamps of Balrámpur, west of Dínanagar in the former District, and runs parallel with the Rávi until it passes into Umritsar. Flows past Rámdás and Ajnála, and joins the Rávi, in lat. 31° 45′ N., and long. 74° 37′ E., near the village of Mirowál, just above the bridge of boats on the Umritsar and Gujránwála road. Never runs absolutely dry, but contains little water, except in the rainy season. Celebrated haunt of waterfowl.

Kirthál.—Village in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 14′ 15″ N., and long. 77° 17′ 15″ E.; 24 miles north-west of Meerut city. Pop. (1872), 5651, consisting of 4814 Hindus (chiefly Játs) and 837 Muhammadans. Stands on a raised site, bounded on the west by a lake or marsh, having a depth of 10 feet in January. A cut drains the surplus water into the Jumna (Jamuná). Few trees, no *bázár*, unmade and broken roadways, damp situation, defective sanitary arrangements. Inhabitants suffer from enlarged spleen and similar diseases.

Kirti.—A petty State in Khandesh.—*See* DANG STATES.

Kirtinása. — River in Dacca District, Bengal; one of the main channels by which the Ganges now finds its way into the Meghná. In Rennel's map of the last century, the Ganges is shown as joining the Meghná at Mehndiganj, considerably to the south of the Kirtinása. But the Kirtinása is now the principal branch of the Ganges, branching off near Rájnagar, and falling into the Meghná, in lat. 23° 14′ N., and long. 90° 37′ E., near Kártikpur. The Kirtinása has a channel of from

3 to 4 miles in width, with a strong current, which renders navigation difficult during the rains. The original channel of the Ganges is now almost dry in the hot season.

Kishangarh.—One of the Native States in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Rájputána Agency and the Government of India; situated between lat. 26° 17′ and 26° 59′ N., long. 74° 43′ and 75° 13′ E. Its area is estimated at 724 square miles, and its population at 105,000.

History.—The chief town, Kishangarh, is situated in lat. 26° 35′ N., long. 74° 55′ E., about 21 miles north-east of Nasírábád (Nusseerabad). The founder of the State was Kishan Sinh, the second son of Mahárájá Udái Sinh of Jodhpur, who, leaving his patrimony, conquered the tract of country which now comprises Kishangarh, and became its ruler under the sign-manual of the Emperor Akbar in 1594. There is little of importance known regarding the affairs of the State until 1818, when a treaty was entered into by the British Government with Kishangarh, together with the other Rájput States, as part of a general scheme for the suppression of the Pindárí marauders, by whom the country was at that time overrun. This treaty contains the usual conditions of protection on the part of the British Government, and subordinate co-operation and abstinence from political correspondence on the part of the chief. However, the Mahárájá Kalyán Sinh, who was supposed to be insane, soon became involved in troubles with his nobles, which eventually resulted in his flight to Delhi. Afterwards matters became worse at Kishangarh, and British territory having been violated by the disputants, the leaders of both parties were called upon to desist from hostilities, and to refer their grievances to the mediation of the Government of India. The Mahárájá was at the same time warned that, if he did not return to his capital and interest himself in the affairs of the State, the treaty with him would be abrogated and engagements formed with the insurgent Thakúrs. This threat brought the Mahárájá back to Kishangarh, but, finding himself unable to govern the State, he offered to lease it to Government. His offer was refused. The Mahárájá on this took up his residence at Ajmere. The nobles then proclaimed the heir-apparent as Mahárájá, and laid siege to the capital, which they were on the point of carrying when Kalyán Sinh accepted the mediation of the Political Agent, through whom matters were for the time adjusted. The reconciliation, however, did not prove sincere, and Kalyán Sinh shortly afterwards abdicated in favour of his son, Makhdum Sinh, by whom the present Mahárájá, Dhiráj Prithi Sinh Bahádur, was adopted. The latter was born about 1835, and succeeded in 1840. He has received the right of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 15 guns.

Revenue, Agriculture, etc.—The produce of the State consists mainly

of cereals. Its revenue was estimated in 1875 to be about £30,000. The customs receipts, which formed a large portion of the revenue, were chiefly derived from the Sámbhar lake salt traffic. These receipts, however, owing to the introduction of railway communication into Rájputána, and the abandonment of duty on all through traffic, having become greatly diminished, the Government of India agreed to compensate the Mahárájá by a money payment of £2000 per annum. The Rájputána State Railway, constructed on the metre gauge, passes through the northern portion of the State. Kishangarh pays no tribute, and contributes nothing to any local corps or contingent. The military force consists (1876) of 550 cavalry, 3500 infantry, 36 guns, and 100 artillerymen.

Kishenganj (properly, *Krishnaganj*).—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*thána*) in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated 33 miles north of Bhágalpur town. Lat. 25° 41′ 10″ N., long. 86° 59′ 20″ E. Contains the second largest market in the District, at which a considerable retail trade is carried on. Government distillery. Pop. (1872), 1150 males and 1130 females; total, 2280.

Kishni.—Town in Sultánpur District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 35′ N., and long. 81° 41′ E., on the right bank of the river Gumti, occupying a high plateau surrounded by ravines. Founded about 400 years ago, by Rájá Kishan Chánd, ancestor of the Mandarik Kshattriyas, whose capital it remained until they lost their independence. Kishni contains 532 houses, and (1869) 2297 inhabitants. Chief building, a mosque built in the reign of Alamgír.

Kisoriganj.—Subdivision of Maimansinh District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 2′ 30″ to 24° 49′ 30″ N., and long. 90° 38′ to 91° 18′ E.; area (1872), 754 square miles, with 938 villages, 49,374 houses, and a population of 363,600, viz. Muhammadans, 217,713, or 59·9 per cent.; Hindus, 145,777, or 40·1 per cent.; Christians, 63; and 'others,' 47. Proportion of males, 49·4 per cent.; density of population, 482 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·24; persons per village, 388; houses per square mile, 65; persons per house, 7·4. This Subdivision, which was constituted in 1860, contains the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Kisoriganj, Niklí, and Bájitpur. In 1870, it contained a Deputy Magistrate and Collector's court, and 2 *munsifs'* courts, a regular police of 62 men, besides a village watch of 737; cost of Subdivisional administration, £4578, inclusive of £2653, which forms the cost of the rural police, and is contributed by the villagers.

Kisoriganj. — Municipal town and headquarters of above Subdivision and police circle, Maimansinh District, Bengal; situated on the Kundálí *khál*, 13 miles east of the Brahmaputra. Lat. 24° 26′ 20″ N., long. 90° 48′ 40″ E. Municipal pop. (1872), including that of several contiguous villages—Muhammadans, 7335; Hindus, 6294; 'others,' 8;

total, 13,637, viz. 6682 males and 6955 females. Gross municipal income (1876-77), £244; average rate of taxation, 4¼d. per head of population within municipal limits. Kisoriganj is connected with the Brahmaputra by a road, and also by the Kundálí *khál*, which, however, is only navigable during the rainy months. A fair is held here annually during the Jhulan *jatra*, a festival in honour of the birth of Krishna, lasting for a month, from the middle of July to the middle of August.

Kisoriganj.—Market village in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on or near the Sankos river. Exports of rice, jute, and tobacco.

Kistawár.—Town in Kashmír State, Punjab, and former capital of a small principality. According to Thornton, it lies in lat. 33° 18′ 30″ N., long. 75° 48′ E., on the southern slope of the Himálayas, near the left bank of the Chenáb (Chináb), which here forces its way through a gorge with precipitous cliffs some 1000 feet in height. Ill-built houses; small *bázár;* fort. Manufacture of inferior shawls and coarse woollens. Elevation above sea level, about 5000 feet.

Kistna (*Krishna*).—A British District in Madras; lying between lat. 15° 35′ and 17° 10′ N., and between 79° 14′ and 81° 34′ E. Area, 8036 square miles; population (according to the Census of 1871), 1,452,374 persons. Bounded on the north by Godávari District; on the east by the Bay of Bengal; on the south by Nellore; and on the west by the Nizám's Dominions and Karnúl (Kurnool). The District was formed in 1859 by the amalgamation of the two collectorates of Gantúr and Masulipatam, a small portion of the latter being also assigned to Godávari District. The revenue headquarters are at MASULIPATAM, and the seat of the Judge at GANTUR.

Physical Aspects.—Kistna District is, speaking generally, a flat country, but the interior is broken by a few low hills, the chief of which are Bellamkondá, Kondavír, Kondapallí, and Jamalavoidrúg, the highest being 1857 feet above sea level. The principal rivers are the KISTNA, which cuts the District into two portions known as the Masulipatam and Gantúr divisions; the Munyeru, Paleru, and Naguleru (tributaries of the Gundlakamma and the Kistna); the last only is practicable for navigation. The KOLAR LAKE, which covers an area of 21 by 14 miles, and the Romparu swamp are natural receptacles for the drainage on the north and south sides of the Kistna respectively. Kolár Lake is navigable from June or July, according to the setting in of the heavy rains, till February. The geological survey of the District is not yet complete. Iron and copper exist, and at one time the mines were worked; but the smelting of copper is now a thing of the past, and that of iron is also dying out. Diamond mines are still worked, to a very slight extent, in five villages belonging to the Nizám; and at other places in the District there are traces of mines which were abandoned long ago.

Garnets and small rubies are also found. There are no forests in the District. A small revenue of £1368 is derived from jungle conservancy, and is spent in planting groves, etc. A few tigers and leopards are found in the Kondavír and Kondapalli Hills, and in the hilly part of the Nuzvír *zamíndárí* and the Palnád; antelopes in the plain; spotted deer and *sámbhar*. Every variety of the game birds of India, except the pheasant, woodcock, and hill partridge, abounds in the District; and almost all the known inland aquatic birds are found on the Kolár Lake when it is full. The most deadly of poisonous snakes, the Russell viper (Daboia Russellii), is common about Masulipatam. The cobra (Naga tripudians), carpet snake (Echis carinata?), and one kind of *bangaras* (Arcuatus) are also met with.

History.—The early history of the District is inseparable from that of the NORTHERN CIRCARS and GODAVARI DISTRICT. Dharánikotá and the adjacent town of Amarávati were the seats of early Hindu and Buddhist governments; and the more modern Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) owed its importance to later dynasties. The Chalukyas here give place to the Ganapatis, who in turn were ousted by the Reddi chiefs, who flourished during the 14th century, and built the forts of Bellamkondá, Kondavír, and Kondapallí. On the death of one of these, at the commencement of the 15th century, Deva Ráyalu, of the Vijáyanagar dynasty, seized the country and held it until Muhammad II. (1463-1486), a Musalmán king of the Báhmani line, wrested this portion of his kingdom from him. The power of the Báhmani dynasty failed towards the end of the 15th century. Kulí Kutab Sháh became King of Golconda about 1512 A.D., and his kingdom included the whole of what is now the Masulipatam portion of Kistna District. On the other side of the Kistna, Narasinha Deva Ráyalu ruled at this time. His territory, which included Gantúr, was annexed to Golconda by Kutab Sháh's great-grandson, about 1600. This line of kings ended with Tanisha, who was dethroned by Aurangzeb in 1687.

Meantime the English had, in 1622, established a small factory at Masulipatam, where they traded with varying fortune till 1750, when the French took possession of it, and we vacated the place. In 1759, Colonel Forde, with a force sent by Lord Clive from Calcutta, retook Masulipatam; and from that date the power of the English in the greater part of the District was complete. In 1765, the *sanads* granted to the English by the Emperor of Delhi to hold the Northern Circars were published, and the entire administration was assumed by the Company. In 1766, a treaty was entered into by the Nizám, in which their tenure was admitted; the absolute right of sovereignty was not obtained until 1823.

Population.—As in other Madras Districts, the population has been roughly counted every five years by the agency of the village establish-

ments. In 1861, it was estimated at 1,296,652. In 1871, the first regular Census was taken, and the population in that year was returned at 1,452,374. Of these, 1,373,089 were Hindus, 78,937 Muhammadans, 90 Europeans, 218 Eurasians, and 36 'others.' The number of Native Christians was 7380. Of the Hindus, 98,548 were Bráhmans; the most numerous Hindu caste was that of the Kápus (agriculturists), who numbered 513,609. The language spoken is Telugu. The people of the District are generally poor, but an exception must be made in the case of the *rayats* of the Delta, who are as a rule very well off. Throughout the Delta, the houses are for the most part built with brick walls, and tiled or terraced roofs; in other parts, they are of mud walls with tiled roofs. Rice is the food of all classes in the Delta, but only well-to-do people use it in the other parts of the District. The total monthly expenditure of a prosperous shopkeeper's family, consisting of five persons, would be about 28s., and that of an ordinary peasant about 16s. The chief towns are Masulipatam, Gantúr, Bezwára, Jaggayyapet, Chirála, Bápatla, Vinukonda, Dachepalli, Gudivada.

Agriculture.—The area under cultivation in Kistna District in 1875-76 (exclusive of *zamíndárí* estates) was 1,907,213 acres; the untilled but cultivable area was returned at 981,377 acres, and uncultivable waste at 1,215,853 acres. The staples raised in the District are rice, maize, *rágí*, pulses, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, gingelly, oil seeds, chillies, wheat, garlic, indigo, and various kinds of fruit. There are three classes of crops grown—namely, *punasa* (early crop), sown in May or June, and reaped in September; *pedda* (great or middle), sown from July to September, and cut between November and February; and *paira* (late crop), sown in November and December, and gathered in February and March. Rice of all kinds is sown in *regar* or black soil. The area under rice in 1875-76 was 364,103 acres, or 18·5 per cent. of the cultivated area. The price of the best rice per *garce* (9460 lbs.) was, in the same year, £30. The Delta is irrigated by the water of the Kistna river, which is diverted into channels by the anicut at Bezwára. In 1875, the area irrigated from this source was 218,029 acres; 4320 acres were fertilized by the Godávari. Manure of inferior quality is generally used. The District contains numerous wells. The daily wages of coolies and agricultural day-labourers in 1850 were from 1½d. to 3d.; in 1876, from 1⅞d. to 6d., and 2d. to 4½d. respectively. Blacksmiths earned in 1876 from 9d. to 1s. 6d.; bricklayers and carpenters from 6d. to 9d. and 7½d. to 1s. a day respectively, while sixteen years ago they earned 3¾d. to 6d. and 3d. to 6d. respectively.

Natural Calamities.—The first famine recorded was in 1686, but of this there is no detailed account extant. The second, in 1832-34,

caused a decrease of 200,000 in the population. It was worst in the Gantúr portion, and was due to the failure of both the monsoons. Prices rose enormously. Public works were opened, but the bulk of the people would not avail themselves of them, and wandered away to other Districts. The loss of population was only in a measure due to deaths. Inundations of the sea overwhelmed the town of Masulipatam in the years 1762, 1843, and 1864; and in each case they were due to a storm-wave forced on to the coast by the violence of a cyclone. The reported loss of life has always been about the same, viz. between 20,000 and 30,000 persons. In the last cyclone, the salt water penetrated to a distance of 9 miles inland.

Manufactures, etc.—At Bezwára a considerable trade is carried on in dressed hides. In the villages, the chief manufacture is cotton-weaving, sometimes from native hand-made thread. A little silk is made at Jaggayyapet, and in the large towns there is some trade in copper and brass vessels. Cotton and indigo are exported in considerable quantities from the District *viâ* Cocanada, a far easier port of shipment than Masulipatam. The only business carried on by European agency is a steam cotton-press at Gantúr. Cotton is brought there to be pressed, and thence sent by road and canal to Cocanada, where the purchasers from the west reside. The principal roads are —from Masulipatam to Haidarábád (Hyderábád); from the Palnád *viâ* Sattanapalle to Gantúr, and thence to Bezwára; from Bhadráchalam *viâ* Tirvúr to Bezwára; and from Nellore District to Pondogala on the Kistna, and thence to Haidarábád. There is water communication between Bezwára and the Godávari canals. Bezwára was but a little village when the anicut was made; it is now a flourishing town, and the busiest place in the District.

Administration.—The total revenue of Kistna District in 1870-71 amounted to £548,469, of which £359,172 was derived from the land. It appears that from the earliest times there were public officers in each village, with duties corresponding to those of a *kurnam* and *munsíf* at the present day. The Musalmáns first introduced the system of renting out villages to middlemen, or *zamíndárs*, originally mere collectors of revenue, who gradually raised themselves to the position of hereditary landowners, and at last asserted their independence of the sovereign power. When negotiations were going on between the Nizám and English, soon after the capture of Masulipatam by Colonel Forde in 1759, it was urged by the Company that as the Nizám had not for a considerable period received any money from the Circars, he might as well let them come to the English, and that he would lose nothing by so doing. When the English undertook the government of that part of the Circars which now comprises the present District of Kistna, the lands were divided into *haveli* and

zamíndárí. The *haveli* lands were treated as Government property, and rented out to the villagers directly by the Collector. With the *zamíndárs*, a permanent settlement was made in 1802. No trouble was ever experienced in the collection of revenue from the *haveli* lands, but the *zamíndárs* were continually in arrears with their tribute, and their estates consequently fell under British management. In 1844, an inquiry was ordered, Mr. (now Sir) Walter Elliott having the duty entrusted to him. In his report he recommended the sale of all *zamíndárís*, five in number, the rents of which were in arrear. These estates, accordingly, were bought up by Government; so that from being a *zamíndárí* District, Kistna became almost entirely *rayatwárí*. On the Masulipatam side of the river, the custom was to let the whole village for a fixed sum to the chief inhabitants, or any one who would outbid them, leaving it to the villagers to apportion the revenue and lands among the cultivators. But when Gantúr fell to Government, the strict *rayatwárí* system of dealing with each *rayat* for his land was ordered. The revenue was fixed either by measurement or by the yearly out-turn of crops. In 1859, the new settlement, to ascertain the productive value of the land, was begun, and finished in 1873. The assessment then fixed will hold good for thirty years. The number of *rayatwárí* holdings in 1871 was 137,880, owned by 169,036 registered proprietors; average land revenue paid by each proprietor, £2, 4s.

Kistna contains 11 *táluks*, and 2 *zamíndárí* estates. The number of villages is 2140. The District is administered by a Collector, with 4 Assistants. The police force consists of 1079 men, 21 inspectors, 5 sub-inspectors, and 145 head constables, controlled by a superintendent and his assistant, who reside at Masulipatam and Gantúr respectively. There are 2 District jails, one at Masulipatam and the other at Gantúr; and 21 subsidiary prisons. The average daily number of prisoners in 1875 was 760, maintained at a cost of £1542, or £2 per prisoner. The number of deaths in jail was 12. The value of jail manufactures was £64. The country people, save Bráhmans and Komatís, are generally uneducated; but in the towns, people gladly avail themselves of the schools that have been established. The Church Missionary Society has a station at Masulipatam, and the American Lutherans at Gantúr.

Kistna (or *Krishna*).—A great river of Southern India, which, like the Godávari and Kaveri (Cauvery), flows almost across the entire breadth of the peninsula from west to east. In traditional sanctity it is surpassed by both these rivers, and in actual length by the Godávari; but the area of its drainage basin, including its two great tributaries, the Bhima and Tungabhadra, is the largest of the three. Its total length is about 800 miles, and the total area of its catchment basin about 94,500 square miles.

The source of the Kistna is in 18° 1′ N. lat., and 73° 41′ E. long., near the Bombay sanitarium of Mahábaleshwar, in the Western Gháts, only about 40 miles from the Arabian Sea. Here stands an ancient temple of Mahádeo, at the foot of a steep hill, at an elevation of about 4500 feet above sea level. In the interior of the temple is a small tank, into which a stream of pure water ever pours out of a spout fashioned into the image of a cow's mouth. This is the traditional fountain-head of the river, which is likened to the deity in a female form, and is fondly called Krishna Bái. Pilgrims in large numbers crowd to the sacred spot, which is embowered in trees of dark foliage and flowering shrubs. From Mahábaleshwar, the Kistna runs southwards in a rapid course, flowing through the British Districts of Satára and Belgáum, the cluster of Native States which form the South Marhattá Agency, and the District of Kaládgi. Here it turns east to pass into the dominions of the Nizám of Haidarábád. In this portion of its course it receives many tributaries, of which the chief are the Yerla, Warna, Idganga, Ghátprabha, and Málprabha. All these, like the main stream, are characteristic rivers of the plateau of the Deccan. They run in deep channels, from which it is almost impossible to lead off channels for irrigation. In the rainy season they swell into brimming torrents, but during the remaining eight months of the year they shrink to mere threads of water, straggling through a sandy waste. On entering the Nizám's dominions, the Kistna drops from the higher tableland of the Deccan Proper on to the alluvial Doabs of Shorápur and Ráichur. The fall is as much as 408 feet in about three miles. In time of flood, a mighty volume of water rushes with a great roar over a succession of broken ledges of granite, dashing up a lofty column of spray. The first of the Doabs mentioned above is formed by the confluence of the Bhima, which brings down the drainage of Ahmednagar, Poona, and Sholápur; the second by the confluence of the Tungabhadra, which drains the north of Mysore and the 'Ceded Districts' of Bellary and Karnúl (Kurnool). At the point of junction with the Tungabhadra, the Kistna again strikes upon British territory, and, still flowing east, forms for a considerable distance the boundary between the Madras Presidency and the Nizám's dominions. Here it is joined by its last important tributary, on whose banks stand the Nizám's capital of Haidarábád. On reaching the frontier chain of the Eastern Gháts, the Kistna turns south to reach the sea. Its delta, for about 80 miles from the mountains to the Bay of Bengal, lies entirely within British territory, and is now known as the District of Kistna. It ultimately falls into the sea by two principal mouths. Along this part of the coast runs an extensive strip of land, which has been entirely formed by the detritus washed down by the Kistna and Godávari. Intermediate between these two deltas, opens the

Kolár Lake, where the process of land-making has not yet been completed. The actual mouths of the rivers have thrown out low promontories far into the sea.

The Kistna may be said to be entirely useless for navigation. The chief port in the delta is Masulipatam, a bare roadstead, liable to be swept by cyclones. The river channel is throughout too rocky and the stream too rapid to allow even of small native craft. The mode of crossing the ferries is by wide circular baskets, made of hides stretched over a framework of bamboos. Near Ráichur, the main stream is crossed by a magnificent iron girder bridge of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. In utility for irrigation the Kistna is also inferior to its two sister streams, the Godávari and Káveri (Cauvery). Throughout the upper portion of its course it runs in a deep bed, with high banks rising from 30 to 50 feet above its ordinary level. Naturally it drains rather than waters the surrounding country; and but few attempts have yet been made to extend its usefulness by means of artificial channels. Of its tributaries, the head-waters of the Bhima are dammed up at Kharakwasla to furnish Poona with a water supply; and the Madras Irrigation Company have expended large sums of money to water the thirsty soil of Karnúl (Kurnool) from the floods of the Tungabhadra. On the main stream, a small work has been constructed high up in Satára District, called the Kistna Canal. A dam has been thrown across the bed of the river, from which a canal is taken parallel to the left bank, capable of irrigating an area of 1825 acres. But by far the greatest irrigation work on the Kistna is the Bezwára anicut, first commenced in 1852, when the similar undertakings on the deltas of the Káveri and Godávari had pointed out the way to success. Bezwára is a small town at the entrance of the gorge by which the Kistna bursts through the Eastern Gháts, and immediately spreads over the alluvial plain. The channel is here 1300 yards wide. During the dry season the depth of water is barely 6 feet, which rises in summer freshes sometimes to as much as 36 feet. The maximum flood discharge is calculated at 1,188,000 cubic feet of water per second. The object of the engineer has been to regulate this excessive supply, so that it shall no longer run to waste and destruction, but be husbanded for the purposes of agriculture, and to some extent also of navigation. The Bezwára anicut consists of a mass of loose stone, faced with a front of masonry. Its total length is 1280 yards, the breadth 305 feet, and the height above low level 21 feet. At each end sluices have been provided, in order to scour out channels for the heads of the two main canals. Of these, the one on the left bank breaks into two branches, the one running 39 miles to Ellore, the other 49 miles to Masulipatam. The canal on the right bank proceeds nearly parallel to the river, and also sends off two principal branches, to Nizapatam and Comamur.

The total length of the main channels (not including minor distributaries) is 254 miles; the total irrigated area is 226,000 acres, yielding a revenue of £89,000. Schemes are now under consideration for extending the network of canals, and also for connecting the Krishna system with that of the Godávari through the town of Ellore and the Kolár (Koláir) Lake.

Kistnapur.—Town in Karúnagapalli District, Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 9° 9′ N., long. 76° 33′ E.; houses, 895; pop. 3731, chiefly Nairs. Seat of a District judge, with a palace; large square fort in repair to the west, and a canal leading to Káyenkolam. Its once active sea-borne trade has now disappeared.

Kittúr.—Town in the Sampgáon Subdivision of Belgáum District, Bombay. Lat. 15° 35′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 50′ E.; 26 miles south-east of Belgáum. Pop. (1872), 7166. In 1832, Kittúr was the scene of a formidable insurrection, which, however, was suppressed by the zeal and intrepidity of two *pátels*, or village headmen, named Linqua Gowah and Krishna Ráo, whose services were acknowledged on the part of Government by grants of land. The Desáis of Kittúr were descendants of two bankers, who were brothers, and came with the Bijápur army towards the close of the 16th century. By distinguished action in the field, the Desáis obtained a grant of Hubli; and their fifth successor established himself at Kittúr. On the fall of the Peshwá, the town passed into the hands of the British Government. But in 1818, when General Munro was besieging the fort of Belgáum, the Desái of Kittúr gave great assistance, and in return was allowed to retain possession of his town of Kittúr. He died in 1824, without issue. An attempt was subsequently made to prepare a forged deed of adoption, which led to an outbreak, in which the Political Agent and Collector and many others lost their lives. Post office.

Kochi Bandar.—Town in Malabar District, Madras.—*See* COCHIN.

Kodáchadri.—Mountain in the Western Gháts, in Shimoga District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 51′ 40″ N., long. 74° 54′ 40″ E.; 4446 feet above sea level. A well-known landmark. On the Mysore side it rises 2000 feet from the plateau, and is clothed with magnificent forests. Towards the west it falls precipitously to the plain of Kanara for 4000 feet, and affords a view as far as the sea. Half-way up is a temple to Huli Deva, the tiger-god.

Kodaikánal ('*The Forest of Creepers*').—Town in Palni *táluk*, on the Palni Hills, Madura District, Madras. Lat. 10° 13′ 21″ N., and long. 77° 31′ 38″ E. A hill sanitarium, 7209 feet above sea level; houses, 221; pop. (1871), 757. Kodaikánal is a summer resort of growing popularity. It contains two churches and several English houses, and is only 40 miles by road from the Ammayanayakanúr railway station. The climate is

similar to that of Utákamand (Ootacamund), but somewhat milder and with a lighter rainfall. But the site of the settlement is ill chosen, and many more suitable spots exist on the Palni range.

Kodá Shastri Parvat.—Mountain in Kúndálpur *táluk*, South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 13° 52′ N., long. 74° 55′ E. A curiously shaped peak of the Western Gháts, 4300 feet high.

Kodáshirí.—Mountain in Cochin, Madras. Lat. 10° 21′ to 10° 21′ 45″ N., and long. 76° 23′ 20″ to 76° 28′ E.

Kodinár. — Town in the Amreli Subdivision of Baroda State, Bombay. Lat. 20° 46′ 30″ N., long. 70° 46′ E.; pop. (1872), 6524.

Kodlipet.—Village in the territory of Coorg, in the extreme north of Yelusavirasime *táluk*. Lat. 12° 48′ N., long. 75° 57′ E.; pop. (1871), 1345. Weekly market; a fine description of cloth is woven here.

Ko-doung.—Revenue circle in Angyí township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Soil very fertile. Pop. (1876), 5389, or about 103 persons per square mile; gross revenue, £5486.

Kodumúr.—Town in Pattikonda *táluk*, Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras. Lat. 15° 41′ 30″ N., long. 77° 50′ 15″ E.; pop. (1871), 6064; number of houses, 985. Noted for its blankets.

Kodungalúr (*Cranganore; Kodungalúr Singulyi*—Yule; *Kuzangaloor*—Tohfat-al-Mahajidin; *Cudnegalur* and *Crangalor*—Bartolomeo). —Town in Cochin State, Madras. Lat. 10° 13′ 50″ N., long. 76° 14′ 50″ E.; pop. (1876), 9475; number of houses, 1990. Situated on the so-called island of Chetwái, at one of the three openings of the great Cochin backwater, 18 miles north-north-west from Cochin town. Now a place of little importance, but of great and varied historical interest. Tradition assigns to it the double honour of having been the first field of Saint Thomas' labours (A.D. 52) in India, and the seat of Cherumán Perumál's government (A.D. 341). The visit of Saint Thomas is generally considered mythical; but it is certain that the Syrian Church was firmly established here before the 9th century (Burnell), and probably the Jews' settlement was still earlier. The latter, in fact, claim to hold grants dated 378 A.D. The cruelty of the Portuguese drove most of the Jews to Cochin. Up to 1314, when the Vypín harbour was formed, the only opening in the backwater, and outlet for the Periyár, was at Kodungalúr, which must at that time have been the best harbour on the coast. Dr. Day says: 'The Cranganore (Kodungalúr) Division has been the scene of most momentous changes in times gone by. Here the Jew and the Christian obtained a footing, and founded towns before the Portuguese landed in India. Here the Perumáls flourished and decayed. On this spot the Portuguese fort was raised in 1523, which they contemplated making the seat of their chief power in Malabar. Here fell the Portuguese before Dutch prowess, whilst Cochin still continued in their possession.

Here the Dutch had to sell their fort and territory to a native prince, before the British would fire a shot to hold back the victorious Tipú. Now the fort is a ruin, mouldering in the dust, with but one solitary tower overhanging the broad expanse of the river, which rolls on slowly but deeply beneath. Its old moat is the resort of the crocodile and paddy-bird; and its once well-used streets resound no more to human tread. The solitary stranger, perhaps, disturbs a snake in his path or an owl in the dense overhanging trees, but rarely a mortal will meet his eye. Cranganore fort is utterly and entirely deserted.' In 1502, the Syrian Christians invoked the protection of the Portuguese. In 1523, the latter built their first fort there; and in 1565, enlarged it. In 1661, the Dutch took the fort, the possession of which for the next forty years was contested between this nation, the Zamorin, and the Rájá of Kodungalúr. In 1776, Tipú seized the stronghold. The Dutch recaptured it two years later; and having ceded it to Tipú in 1784, sold it to the Travancore Rájá, and again to Tipú in 1789, who destroyed and left it in the following year.

The present town consists of two villages, Metthala and Lakamaleshwara. In the latter are the ruins of some curious old pagodas. The remains of the ancient watch-tower, and the palace of the titular Rájá of Kodungalúr, are of interest. A few miles inland is Ambalkota, where the Jesuits had one of their earliest seminaries, and published in 1577 the first printed work in Malayálam. The town is considered of great sanctity both by Christians and Hindus.

Kodutanni.—Small town in Bellary District, Madras. The first stage on the Dharwar road, and formerly sacred as the halting-place of Komaraswámi on his expedition against the Rakshasas. Remains of a fort and of a Jain settlement.

Koel.—*Tahsíl* in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces—*See* KOIL.

Koel, North.—River of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; rises in lat. 23° 4′ N., and long. 84° 30′ E., in the Barwá Hills, in the west of Lohárdagá District; and after passing through the centre of Palamau Subdivision, falls into the Són on the northern boundary of the District, in lat. 24° 32′ N., and long. 83° 56′ E., about 20 miles above Dehri. Tributaries—the Amánat and Aurangá on the right, and some insignificant streams on the left bank. The Koel has a rocky bed in its earlier course, which becomes sandy as it nears the Són. Navigation is obstructed by a ridge of gneiss rock crossing the river near Sigsigi; and even if this obstacle could be removed, the sudden freshets which occur during the rains would render navigation extremely dangerous.

Koel, South.—River of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; rises in lat. 23° 18′ 30″ N., and long. 85° 6′ 15″ E., in Lohárdagá District, a short distance westward of Ránchi town. It flows circuitously southwards,

until after a course of 185 miles it is joined by the SANKH river in the tributary State of Gángpur, whence the united stream becomes the BRAHMANI, and ultimately flows into the Bay of Bengal in the north-west of Cuttack District by the Dhámrá estuary. Principal feeders of the Koel are the NORTH and SOUTH KARO, the DEO, and other minor streams.

Kohát.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab (Panjáb), lying between 32° 47′ and 33° 53′ N. lat., and between 70° 34′ and 72° 17′ E. long.; with an area of 2838 square miles, and a population in 1868 of 145,419 persons. Kohát forms the south-western District of the Peshawar Division. It is bounded on the north by Pesháwar District and the Afrídi Hills, and on the north-west by the Orakzáis; on the south by Bannu; on the east by the river Indus; and on the west by the Záimukht Hills, the river Kuram, and the Wazírí Hills. The administrative headquarters are at the town of KOHAT.

Physical Aspect.—The District of Kohát consists chiefly of a bare and intricate mountain region, deeply scored with river valleys and ravines, but enclosing a few scattered patches of cultivated lowland, and rendered economically valuable by the rich deposits of rock-salt, which occur amongst its sterile hills. The eastern or Khatak country, especially, comprises a perfect labyrinth of interlacing mountain ranges, which fall, however, into two principal groups, to the north and south of the Teri Toi river. The Miranzái valley, in the extreme west, appears by comparison a rich and fertile tract. In its small but carefully tilled glens, the plane, palm, fig, and many orchard trees flourish luxuriantly; while a brushwood of wild olive, mimosa, and other thorny bushes, clothes the rugged ravines upon the upper slopes. Occasional grassy glades upon their sides form favourite pasture grounds for the Wazírí tribes. The Teri Toi, rising on the eastern limit of Upper Miranzái, runs due eastward to the Indus, which it joins 12 miles north of Makhad, dividing the District into two main portions. The drainage from the northern half flows southwards into the Teri Toi itself, and northward into the parallel stream of the Kohát Toi. That of the southern tract falls northwards also into the Teri Toi, and southwards towards the Kuram and the Indus. The frontier mountains, continuations of the Safed Koh system, attain in places a considerable elevation, the two principal peaks, Dupa Sír and Mazeo Garh, just beyond the British frontier, being 8260 and 7940 feet above the sea respectively. The Wazírí Hills, on the south, extend like a wedge between the boundaries of Bannu and Kohát, with a general elevation of less than 4000 feet. The salt mines are situated in the low line of hills crossing the valley of the Teri Toi, and extending along either bank of that river. The mineral occurs as a solid rock

of bluish-grey colour, exposed at intervals for a distance of 40 miles, so as to be quarried rather than mined. The deposit has a width of a quarter of a mile, with a thickness of 1000 feet; it sometimes forms hills 200 feet in height, almost entirely composed of solid rock-salt, and may probably rank as one of the largest veins of its kind in the world. The most extensive exposure occurs at Bahádur Khel, on the south bank of the Teri Toi. Petroleum springs exude from a rock at Panoba, 23 miles east of Kohát; and sulphur abounds in the northern range.

History.—The annals of the District coincide with those of its two principal tribes, the Khatak and Bangash Patháns, who constitute together more than 60 per cent. of the population. The latter occupy the Miranzái valley, with the western portion of Kohát proper; while the Khataks hold the remainder of the eastern territory up to the bank of the Indus. According to tradition, the Bangash Patháns were driven from Gardez in the Ghilzái country by its present possessors, and settled in the Kuram valley about the 14th century A.D. Thence they spread eastward, over the Miranzái and Kohát region, fighting for the ground inch by inch with the Orakzái, whom they cooped up at last in the frontier hills. This migration probably took place before the time of Bábar, as that emperor in his memoirs mentions the Bangash tribe among the races inhabiting the fourteen Provinces of Kábul. Throughout the Mughal period, their allegiance to the imperial court seems to have been little more than nominal; but the Duráni Emperors extended their sway to these remote valleys, and Taimur Sháh collected a regular revenue from the Miranzái glens. Early in the present century, Kohát and Hangu formed a governorship under Sardár Samad Khán, one of the Bárakzái brotherhood, whose leader, Dost Muhammad, usurped the throne of Afghánistán. The Sardár died about the year 1828, and was succeeded by his brother, Muhammad Khán. Meanwhile, the great Síkh reaction had been spreading on every side from its centre at Amritsar, and began to affect even the distant Pathán hill country. In 1834, Ranjít Sinh occupied Pesháwar, and Muhammad Khán retired to Kábul. But the Síkhs found themselves unable to levy revenue from the hardy mountaineers; and in the following year Ranjít Sinh restored Muhammad Khán to a position of importance at Pesháwar, and made him a grant of Kohát and Hangu. Muhammad Khán levied revenue by force of arms for three years; but his sons, who afterwards undertook the management, drove the chieftains of Upper Miranzái into open revolt. On the outbreak of the second Síkh war in 1848, the rebellious chiefs solicited the protection of the British. But Muhammad Azím Khán, governor of Kuram for the Kábul court, sent a force to occupy the District, and instigated the hill tribes to resist the British claim. Accordingly it became necessary

to despatch an expedition for the vindication of our rights as successors to the Lahore Government. After some smart skirmishing with the Wazíris at Biland Khel on the Kuram, the Punjab Government wished to withdraw from Miranzái; but the supreme authority supervened. The people, however, paid no revenue, and incursions across the frontier continued to disturb the peace of the new District. In 1854, Biland Khel was made over to the Kábul Government, and the Kuram river became the boundary of British Miranzái; and in 1855, a force of 4000 men marched into the valley, enforced the revenue settlement, and punished a recusant village at the foot of the Záimukht Hills. The Miranzái quickly reconciled themselves to British rule; and during the Mutiny of 1857, no opposition of any sort took place in the valley.

The Khataks, who occupy the eastern half of the District, are an important tribe, holding the west bank of the Indus for a distance of 120 miles from Hund, north of the Kábul river in Pesháwar, to Kálabágh in Bannu. According to tradition, they left their native home in the Sulemán Mountains about the 13th century, and settled in Bannu District. Thence they migrated northward two hundred years later, through a quarrel with the ancestors of the Bannuchis, and occupied their present domains. One of their leaders, Malik Akor, agreed with the Emperor Akbar to protect the country south of the Kábul river from depredations, and received in return a grant of territory with the right of levying tolls at the Akora ferry. He was thus enabled to assume the chieftainship of his tribe, and to hand down his authority to his descendants, among whom was the warrior poet, Khushál Khán. After the establishment of Ahmad Sháh Duráni, the Khatak chieftainship fell into two or three conflicting divisions; and a period of anarchy, family quarrels, and frequent bloodshed succeeded. Early in the present century, Ranjít Sinh, then pursuing his designs against Pesháwar, espoused the cause of one among the claimants, whom he established as chief of the whole tribe. But the partisans of the Kábul court poisoned the new ruler, and set up a tributary of their own. A contest for supremacy ensued between Rasúl Khán, backed by the Síkh governor of Bannu, and Balmal Khán, supported by the Bárakzái Sardárs, brothers of Dost Muhammad of Kábul. When the Síkhs occupied Pesháwar in 1834, the Sardárs retired to Afghánistán, and Ranjít Sinh appointed a governor at Kohát, who expelled Rasúl Khán. Shortly afterwards, however, the new governor threw up his engagements and fled to the hills, leaving Kohát to Balmal Khán. At last, in 1835, Ranjít Sinh granted Kohát and Hangu to Muhammad Khán Bárakzái, to whom Rasúl Khán submitted, and obtained the government in return for a fixed tribute. Rasúl Khán held peaceable possession till his death in 1843; when he was succeeded

by his adopted son, Khwája Muhammad Khán. The latter was subsequently expelled for a short time by Muhammad Khán; but on the retirement of the Afgháns from Peshávar, at the close of the campaign of 1848, he again assumed the government of the Teri country, in which the British authorities confirmed him, after the annexation. Khwája Muhammad has proved himself a loyal subject; and in 1872 he obtained the title of Nawáb, with the Knight Commandership of the Star of India.

Population.—The Census of 1855 returned the number of inhabitants in the District at 101,232. That of 1868 showed an increase of 44,187 persons, or 43·64 per cent. The latter enumeration extended over an area of 2838 square miles, and it disclosed a total population of 145,419 persons, distributed among 343 villages or townships, and inhabiting 28,639 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 51·59; villages per square mile, 0·12; houses per square mile, 10·09; persons per village, 423; persons per house, 5·08. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 79,323; females, 66,096; proportion of males, 54·55 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—28,180 boys, and 23,943 girls; total children, 52,123, or 35·84 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, the District retains the Musalmán faith of its early Pathán settlers. The Muhammadans number 136,565 persons, or 93·91 per cent., as against 6544 Hindus, or 4·50 per cent., and 1837 Síkhs, or 1·26 per cent. The remaining 473 persons, forming a percentage of 0·32, are returned as 'others.' The Hindus chiefly belong to the trading castes. They comprise 887 Bráhmans, 1182 Kshattriyas, and 4442 Aroras, with a small sprinkling of Rájputs, Játs, and Ahírs. Among the Muhammadans, 6313 rank as Sayyids; but the Patháns form by far the largest division, numbering 102,431, or nearly three-fourths of the whole population. Of these, 56,260 are Khataks, while 31,212 belong to the Bangash tribe. The Khatak Patháns are tall and good-looking mountaineers, fairer than their Peshávar brethren; and though naturally wild and lawless, have settled down under our firm administration into peaceful subjects. The Bangash possess an equally fine physique, but lie under the imputation of cowardice. The District contains only one town with a population exceeding 5000—viz. Kohat, the headquarters station, with a total in 1868 of 11,274 inhabitants; Hangu, the capital of the Upper Bangash, and Teri, headquarters of the Khatak Nawábs, also possess a certain political importance.

Agriculture.—The District, though limited in its capabilities by its generally hilly surface, has made rapid progress in cultivation since the introduction of British rule. At the date of annexation, only 64,772 acres were returned as under cultivation, out of a total area of

1,816,600 acres; but the figures rose steadily to 76,792 acres in 1860-61; 160,900 acres in 1868-69; and 163,015 acres in 1873-74. In the period of anarchy under the Bárakzái Sardárs, tillage had almost disappeared, the cattle had been carried off, and the *zamíndárs* had fled to the hills; but since the annexation, the area under the plough has increased by 170 per cent. The agricultural staples include wheat and barley for the spring harvest, with rice, millet, Indian corn, and pulses for the autumn crops. Tobacco, mustard, and oil-seeds also cover small areas, and cotton of inferior quality is grown in favourable years. The area under each crop in 1873-74 was returned as follows:—Wheat, 36,600 acres; barley, 17,070 acres; millets, 23,705 acres; Indian corn, 12,050 acres; rice, 4710 acres. Cultivation has now nearly reached its utmost limit in the glens and hollows of these barren hills. Irrigation from the hill streams supplied water to 40,308 acres in 1873-74. Manure is abundantly used in lands near the villages, and more sparingly elsewhere. Rotation of crops exists only in its simplest form. Prices ruled as follows on the 1st of January 1873:—Wheat, 18 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 3d. per cwt.; barley, 34 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 26 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 4d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The principal industry of the District is that of its salt mines, situated in the range of hills along the Teri Toi. Five mines are now open—Malgin and Jattá on the northern bank, and Narri, Bahádur Khel, and Kharrak on the opposite side of the river (each of which see separately). Traders resort to the mines from Afghánistán and the Punjab towns. The Preventive Establishment, kept up by the Government for the protection of the salt revenue, comprised in 1870 a body of 204 officers and men. The total quantity of salt quarried at all five mines during the year 1870-71, amounted to 407,098 *maunds*, or 294,680 cwts., yielding a duty of £8556. The trade flourishes chiefly during the winter months, as the camels cannot work in the hottest part of the summer. The headquarters of the salt establishment are at Jattá. Gun and rifle barrels manufactured near Kohát town have a considerable reputation along the north-western frontier. Coloured scarves, woollen carpets, country cloth, and pottery are also turned out at Kohát, Hangu, and Teri. The frontier military road forms the chief channel of communication, practicable throughout for wheeled conveyances and artillery. The District has altogether 249 miles of road, all unmetalled, and in many cases mere tracks, passable at best by camels, and sometimes only by bullocks or ponies. The Frontier Telegraph Line from Pesháwar crosses the District, and has a station at Kohát.

Administration.—The total imperial revenue raised in the District

during the year 1851-52 amounted to £9824. By 1872-73, the revenue had risen to £19,443; of which sum the land-tax contributed £8951, or slightly less than one-half. Of the remaining items, salt and customs produced £8874, or nearly as much as the land revenue. A small Provincial and local revenue was also raised for home expenditure. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner, with one or more Assistant and extra-Assistant Commissioners. Nawáb Khwája Muhammad Khán, K.C.S.I., of Teri, exercises the powers of an honorary magistrate within the Teri Subdivision. In 1873-74, the District contained 5 civil and revenue judges, and as many magistrates. The imperial police force in 1872 numbered 429 officers and men, besides a municipal constabulary of 36 men at Kohát; the rural watchmen (*chaukidárs*) numbered 29 men; making a total force of 494, or 1 to every 5·74 square miles of area and every 294 of the population. The District jail at Kohát had a total number of 473 inmates in 1872, with a daily average of 144. The troops quartered in the District usually comprise 1 mountain battery and 1 garrison battery of artillery, 1 regiment of cavalry, and 3 regiments of infantry, making a total of about 3000 men of all arms. The headquarters are at Kohát, but numerous outposts are maintained along the frontier line. Education remains in a very backward stage. Four Government or aided schools, and 43 indigenous schools, had a total roll of only 745 pupils in 1872-73. The only municipality in the District is that of Kohát, which had a revenue of £757 in 1875-76, being at the rate of 1s. 1½d. per head of the population (11,004) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The proximity of the hills renders Kohát comparatively cool, except during the summer months; but no record of temperature is available. The rainfall for the seven years ending 1872-73 is returned as follows:—1866-67, 15·1 inches; 1867-68, 14·1 inches; 1868-69, 13·4 inches; 1869-70, 19·1 inches; 1870-71, 18·7 inches; 1871-72, 18·4 inches; 1872-73, 24 inches; annual average, 17·7. The cantonment and civil station bear a bad reputation for unhealthiness. In the District, small-pox, fevers, and bowel complaints form the principal endemic diseases. The number of deaths from all causes reported in 1872 amounted to 2208, or 15 per thousand; but these figures cannot be regarded as trustworthy. Of the total, 1000 were assigned to fever, and 496 to small-pox. The 3 Government charitable dispensaries at Kohát, Hangu, and Teri afforded relief in 1872 to 18,654 persons, of whom 314 were in-patients.

Kohát.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Kohát District, Punjab, consisting of a rugged hilly tract stretching below the Orakzái Mountains. Area 1224 square miles; pop. (1868), 53,554; number of villages, 108.

Kohát.—Municipal town, military cantonment, and administrative

headquarters of Kohát District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), including the cantonment, 11,274, consisting of 2525 Hindus, 7003 Muhammadans, 1431 Síkhs, 60 Christians, and 255 'others.' Situated in lat. 33° 35′ 35″ N., and long. 71° 28′ 43″ E., near the north bank of the Kohát Toi river, 2 miles from the southern base of the Afrídi Hills. Distant from Pesháwar 37 miles south, from Bannu 84 miles north-east, from Ráwal Pindi 105 miles west. Elevation above sea level, 1767 feet. Lies in an amphitheatre of hills, at some distance from the abandoned site of the old city. Built on undulating ground, with excellent natural drainage. One good main street; the remainder are tortuous alleys, often ending in *culs-de-sac.* Surrounded by a slight wall, 12 feet in height. Government school-house; jail. Small trade, but of relative importance as the chief mart for the hill tribes, who bring down grass and firewood. Manufacture of gun and rifle barrels, at a village near the site of the old town. The CANTONMENT and CIVIL STATION lie to the east and north-east of the native city, occupying an elevated site. There is accommodation for about 3000 troops, including a battery of artillery, 1 regiment of cavalry, and 3 regiments of infantry, together with a garrison company of artillery, stationed in the fort. Climate pleasant; but the water-supply is polluted, and the general unhealthiness of the station has been attributed to this cause. The fort, erected by the British Government after the annexation, stands north of the cantonment and city. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £757, or 1s. 1½d. per head of population (11,004) within municipal limits.

Kohát Toi.—River in Kohát District, Punjab; rises beyond the British frontier, in the valley which separates the two parallel ranges of the Orakzái Hills. Issues upon British territory, in lat. 33° 36′ N., and long. 71° 9′ E., a little north-east of Hangu. Receives a considerable tributary, which drains the Lower Miranzái valley, and opposite Kohát city sweeps southward, diverted by the curve of the Adam Khel Afrídi Hills; fifteen miles lower down, turns eastward, and, after a further course of 17 miles, falls into the Indus, in lat. 33° 24′ N., and long. 71° 51′ E., 36 miles south-east of Kohát in a straight line.

Kohistán.—*Táluk* in Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Area, 4058 square miles; pop. (1872), 5681, including 4713 Muhammadans and 900 Hindus. Consists of a barren and hilly tract of country, composed of outlying spurs from the Kirthar range. The southern portion merges into several extensive plains, separated by low lines of hills, and affording an abundance of forage for herds of cattle from the Indus after falls of rain. The chief streams are the Hab, Báran, and Malir. No canals exist; agriculture is all but unknown; and the Baluchi tribes live almost entirely by pasturing goats and sheep. The population is nomadic and fluctuating, the whole *táluk* containing only 6

permanent villages. The Baluchis inhabit chiefly the northern portion; the Númrias and Jokias, who are Sindi tribes, range over the central hills and the southern plains. As a rule, none of the people erect any buildings more substantial than a mat hut, which can be put up in a couple of hours. The Númrias are especially averse to dealings with Government, and all the tribes are great adepts at cattle-lifting. The treasury derives no revenue from this extensive *táluk*, as the land tax has been remitted for twenty years, the cost of its collection proving to be greater than the amount realized. The Government establishment consists only of a *kotwál*, with the powers of a subordinate magistrate. The police force comprises 77 men under a chief constable. The principal village, Búla Khán's Tháno, has a population (1872) of only 440 (238 Musalmáns, 202 Hindu Banias); it communicates by road with Kotri (32 miles east) and Karáchí (64 miles south-west). Total area under cultivation, about 6000 acres. A system of blood-feud prevails amongst the Baluchi tribes of Kohistán, inducing much bloodshed and internal confusion. A feud may arise from the most trivial causes, such as a wrestle, in which a man of one tribe knocks off the turban of a man belonging to another clan. The insult thus offered is supposed to extend to all the relations and tribesmen on either side, and can only be wiped out in the blood of the offender himself or his family. When the insulted tribe has thus taken vengeance for the affront, the other tribe proceeds to avenge in turn the murder of their clansman, and in this manner the quarrel may continue for many years. To check this state of things, it becomes necessary to imprison the chief of the tribe, though sometimes the injured party, whose turn it is to take revenge, so as to prevail upon him to accept a compensation in the shape of money, camels, or cattle; after which the feud dies a natural death. A former Collector relates a case in which one Núr Muhammad, an influential member of the Baréjo tribe, seduced a Loharáni woman, and slew her husband. He attempted to purchase peace, but the Loharánis refused. He was tried for murder, but escaped through the inapplicability of English procedure to such wild and barbarous tribes. In a little time some Loharánis were found with arms in their hands, going to murder their enemy, and were bound over to keep the peace. Shortly afterwards, however, in 1871, his foemen met him in a pass near Taung, and cut him to pieces with swords, together with his stepson. When the case came on for trial, the Baréjos tried to implicate a third man, a Gabol, as they had a feud with that branch of the tribe also. This example will illustrate the continuance of the vendetta amongst the rude Baluchi clansmen, even after twenty-five years of British rule.

Koil.—Central northern *tahsíl* of Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces; consisting for the most part of a level and well-tilled plain,

watered by the Ganges Canal, and traversed by the East Indian and Oudh and Rohilkhand Railways. Area, 356 square miles, of which 241 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 230,669; land revenue, £35,848; total Government revenue, £39,499; rental paid by cultivators, £57,671; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 1¾d.

Koil.—Municipal city in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces. —*See* ALIGARH TOWN.

Koilpatam (the *Cael* of Marco Polo).—Town in Tenkarái *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 8° 33′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 10′ E.; pop. (1871), 11,197; number of houses, 3997. A seaport, with a small trade, carried on chiefly by Labhays; large salt manufacture. Formerly of considerable importance, but now superseded by Tuticorin, as Koilpatam itself replaced Korkoi, when the latter was gradually deserted by the sea.

Kokúr.—Celebrated spring in Kashmír State, Punjab; situated at the northern base of the Pír Panjal Mountain. Lat. 33° 30′ N., long. 75° 19′ E. Thornton states that it issues by six mouths from the bottom of a limestone cliff. The stream thus formed flows into the Bareng river. Thornton mentions that the Afghán court, when established in Kashmír, drank no other water except that of the Kokúr spring.

Kolába.— A British District in the Konkan Division of the Bombay Presidency, lying between 17° 52′ and 18° 50′ N. lat., and 73° 7′ and 73° 42′ E. long. Area, 1482 square miles, with a population in 1872 of 350,405 persons. Bounded on the north by the Bombay harbour, the District of Tanna, and the Amba river; on the east by the territory of Pant Sachiv and by the Districts of Poona and Satára; on the south by Ratnágiri and the State of Janjirá; and on the west by the Arabian Sea. The chief town of Kolába District is ALIBAGH.

Physical Aspect, etc. — Lying between the Sahyádri range and the sea, the District of Kolába abounds in hills, some being spurs of considerable regularity and height, running westwards at right angles to the main range, whilst others are isolated peaks or lofty detached ridges. A series of ranges run north and south between the Sahyádri Hills and the sea. The sea frontage, of about 20 miles, is throughout the greater part of its length fringed by a belt of cocoa-nut and betel-nut palms. Behind this belt lies a stretch of flat country devoted to rice cultivation. In many places along the banks of the salt-water creeks, there are extensive tracts of salt marsh land, some of them reclaimed, some still subject to tidal inundation, and others set apart for the manufacture of salt. A few small streams, rising in the hills to the east of the District, pass through it to the sea. Tidal inlets, of which the principal are the Nágothna on the north, the Roha or Chaul in the west, and the Bánkot creek in the south, run inland for 30 or 40 miles, forming highways for a brisk trade

in rice, salt, firewood, and dried fish. Near the coast especially, the District is well supplied with reservoirs. Some of these are handsomely built of cut stone; but none are very large, and only a few hold water throughout the year. The well water of the coast villages is somewhat brackish, and the supply near the Sahyádri Hills is very defective.

The Sahyádri range, which forms the eastern boundary of Kolába District, has two remarkable peaks,—Ráigarh in the Mahád Subdivision, where Sivají built his capital; and Mirádongar, a station of the Trigonometrical Survey. The extensive teak and blackwood forests of Kolába are very valuable. The Kolába teak has by competent judges been pronounced the best grown in the Konkan, and inferior only to that of Calicut. The value of these forests is increased by their proximity to Bombay, for they may be said to lie around the mouth of the harbour. The knees or curves are particularly adapted for the building of small vessels. The timber trade of the District has two main branches,—an inland trade in wood for building purposes, and a coast trade in firewood and crooks for shipbuilding. In 1875-76 the forest revenue of Kolába amounted to £3634.

Tigers and leopards are found all over the District, and bears on the Sahyádri range. Hyænas and jackals abound. Bison, *sámbhar*, and cheetah have been shot, but are very rare. Serviceable ponies and goats are numerous. In the coast villages, the fishermen cure large quantities of fish for export to Bombay by the inland creeks.

Kolába Island formed in ancient times a shelter for the pirate fleets of Western India. It is situated just outside Alíbágh harbour, which in the last century was the stronghold of the pirate chief Angria. It was fortified by the Marhattá Sivají in 1662, and converted into a regular buccaneering stronghold. In 1722, a combined expedition of British ships and Portuguese troops made an unsuccessful attack upon it. It continued to be an active scene of the pirate Rájá Angria's operations, and survived the sharp measures of Clive against that chief. In 1772, Forbes describes it as still an important place, where the chief lived in much splendour. The rise of the Indian navy during the second half of the last century put an end to piracy on an organized and successful scale in Bombay waters.

Kolába District, with the exception of the Subdivision of Alíbágh, formed part of the dominions of the Peshwa, annexed by the Bombay Government in 1818, on the overthrow of Bájí Ráo. Alíbágh lapsed to the Paramount Power in 1839. Kolába island has still an evil reputation with mariners, as the scene of many wrecks. Full nautical details regarding it are given in Taylor's *Sailing Directions*, and many houses in the town are built from the drift-wood of vessels which have gone ashore. Ships are sometimes supposed to be intentionally

wrecked here; the coast near Alíbágh presents fair facilities for the escape of the crews.

Population.—The Census returns of 1872 disclosed a total population of 350,405 persons, residing in 1065 towns and villages, and 72,699 houses; density of the population, 236 per square mile; houses per square mile, 49; persons per village, 318; persons per house, 4·82. Classified according to sex, there are 178,047 males and 172,358 females; proportion of males, 50·81 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years — 70,503 boys and 63,572 girls; total children, 134,075, or 38·26 per cent. of the population. The religious division shows 330,914 Hindus, 17,194 Musalmáns, and 25 Parsís. Of the remainder, 1946 are Jews, and 208 Christians.

Of the Hindus, the most important classes are the Bráhmans, who own large gardens and palm groves along the coast. In the south they are the landlords or *khots* of many villages, holding the position of middlemen between Government and the actual cultivators. Another important class are the Bhandáras, or toddy-drawers and cocoanut cultivators. Of hill tribes, there are the Gaulis and Dhangars, shepherds and cowherds; the Thákors, cultivators of hill terrace land, and hunters; and the Káthkaris, makers of *káth* or catechu. The Beni-Israel, or Indian Jews, are chiefly found in the seaboard tracts. A considerable number of them enlist in the native army, and are highly esteemed as soldiers. They maintain the rite of circumcision, and faithfully accept the Old Testament. Their social and religious discipline is administered by elders, the chief of whom are called Kádis. Their home language is Maráthí, but in the synagogues their scriptures are read in Hebrew. The Jews monopolize the work of oil-pressing to so great an extent, that they are generally known as oilmen or *telis.* The late Dr. Wilson was of opinion that the Beni-Israel are descended from the lost tribes, founding his belief upon the fact that they possessed none of the Jewish names which date after the captivity, and none of the Jewish scriptures or writings after that date. Some of the Musalmáns are the descendants of converted Hindus; others trace their origin to foreign invaders; and a few are said to represent the early Arab traders and settlers. But of these last there is not, so low down the western coast, any distinct community, and there are few families that have not intermarried with Musalmáns of the country.

Agriculture. — Agriculture is the most important industry of the District, supporting 246,406 persons, or 70·32 per cent. of the entire population. There are four descriptions of soil:—(1) Alluvial, composed of various disintegrated rocks of the overlying trap formation, with a large or small proportion of calcareous substance. This is by far the richest variety, and occupies the greater portion of

the District. (2) Soil formed by the disintegration of laterite and trap, covering the slopes of the hills and plateaux. Though fitted for the cultivation of some crops, such as *nágliwari* and hemp, this soil, owing to its shallowness, soon becomes exhausted, and has to be left fallow for a few years. (3) Clayey mould, resting upon trap called *khárápát* or salt land. (4) Soil containing marine deposits, a large portion of sand and other matter in concretion. This last lies immediately upon the sea-coast, and is favourable for garden crops. The agricultural stock in Government villages amounted in 1875-76 to 30,259 ploughs, 2720 carts, 50,056 bullocks, 43,131 cows, 43,123 buffaloes, 381 horses, 15,388 sheep and goats, 85 asses. Of 476,748 acres, the total area of Government cultivable land, 468,646 acres, or 98·30 per cent., were taken up for cultivation in 1876-77. Of these, 192,668 acres were under grass or occupied by salt-pans; of the remainder, 275,978 acres were under actual tillage, 4392 of which were twice cropped. Food grains occupied 259,514 acres, or 94·03 per cent. of the cultivated area; pulses, 11,826, or 4·28 per cent.; oil-seeds, 4801, or 1·73 per cent.; fibres, 1168, or 0·42 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops, 3060 acres, or 1·10 per cent. Rice of many varieties, occupying 138,620 acres, or 50·22 per cent. of the area actually under cultivation in 1876-77, is the staple produce of the District, and forms the chief article of export. The finest varieties are called *konti* and *ámbemor*, after them *patni*, *nirpúj*, and *baras*. Rice is grown on saline as well as on sweet land. Between December and May, the plot of ground chosen as a nursery is covered with cow-dung and brushwood; this is overlaid with thick grass, and earth is spread over the surface; the whole is then set fire to on the leeward side, generally towards morning, after the heavy dew has collected. In June, after the land has been sprinkled by a few showers, the nursery is sown with rice and then ploughed. The plants shoot up after a few heavy falls of rain. In the beginning of July, the seedlings are planted out at a distance of from 8 to 10 inches apart in fields previously ploughed and cleared. The land is weeded from time to time. Between October and November, the reaping commences. The crop is left in the field, where it is spread out to dry more perfectly; it is afterwards tied up in sheaves and built into a stack. After a month or so, the threshing commences. A small piece of hard ground (sometimes a rock) is selected, and the sheaves are then beaten against the ground, the straw being kept for fodder or thatch. The winnowing follows, which is effected by filling a flat shovel-shaped basket with grain, and slowly emptying it from as great a height as the upraised arms can reach. In the salt land no plough is used, neither is the soil manured. In the beginning of June, when the ground has become thoroughly saturated, the seed is either sown in the mud or wher-

ever the land is low and subject to overflowing of rain-water. No transplanting takes place, but thinning is done when necessary. Should a field by any accident be flooded by salt water for three years, the crops would be deteriorated. The inferior kinds of grain called *nachni* (Eleusine coracana), *wari* (Panicum miliaceum), *harik* (Paspalum frumentaceum), which form the chief food supply of the majority of the people, are also grown in considerable quantities, especially on the flat tops and terraced sides of the hills. Cotton, now rarely grown, was cultivated with considerable success during the great development of the production of Indian cotton at the close of last century. Dr. Hove, who visited Dásgám in 1788, found cotton as luxuriant there as in Guzerat. Excepting in 1791, there is no record of any serious failure of crops amounting in intensity to a famine.

Trade, etc.—The chief articles of export are rice, salt, firewood, timber, vegetables, and fruits. The imports consist of grain, piece-goods, oil, butter, sugar, and molasses. The total sea-borne trade of the District is estimated at £609,065, namely £438,249 exports, and £170,816 imports. The local manufactures barely suffice for local wants. Salt is extensively made by evaporation, and its production furnishes profitable employment in the fair season, when the cultivators are not engaged in agriculture. The weaving of silk—a relic of Portuguese times—is practised at Chaul. The extraction of oil from *til* (Sesamum), the cocoa-nut, and the ground-nut, and the preparation of cocoa-nut fibre, also support many families. The District appears on the whole to be well supplied with means of transporting and exporting produce, a great portion being within easy reach of water-carriage. Minor markets and fairs are held periodically at thirty places in the District. The yearly rate of interest varies from 6 to 24 per cent. Banias from Márwár and Guzerat are the chief money-lenders. A labourer earns from 4½d. to 6d. a day; bricklayers and carpenters, from 1s. to 1s. 4½d. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were, for a rupee—rice, 20 lbs.; wheat, 19 lbs.; and *dál* (split peas), 15 lbs.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, Kolába District is divided into 5 Subdivisions. The revenue raised in 1876-77 under all heads—imperial, local, and municipal—amounted to £106,893, showing, on a population of 350,405, an incidence per head of 6s. 1d. The land tax forms the principal source of income, yielding £72,462. Other important items are stamps, forest, and local dues. The latter, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded a total sum of £8950. There are 4 municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 23,573 persons. Their receipts are returned at £5644, and the incidence of taxation varies from 1s. 1½d. to 2s. 2½d. per head. The administration of the District in revenue

matters is entrusted to a Collector and 2 Assistants, of whom one is a covenanted civilian. Kolába is included in the local jurisdiction of the Judge of Tanna. For the settlement of civil disputes, there are 3 courts, and the number of suits decided in 1876-77 was 4346. Thirteen officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police in 1875 consisted of 319 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 4·66 square miles, or to every 1191 persons. Total cost, £5818, equal to £3, 18s. 6⅛d. per square mile of area and 4d. per head of the population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 1039, being 1 person to every 337 of the population. In 1855-56, there was only 1 school, attended by 108 pupils; in 1876-77, there were 71 schools, attended by 3644 pupils, or an average of 1 school for every 13 inhabited villages.

The average rainfall during the five years ending with 1876 was 75 inches. In 1876, 3 dispensaries afforded medical relief to 213 in-door and 13,381 out-door patients.

Kolába.—Point or spur of land protecting the entrance to Bombay harbour on the north. It was originally a chain of small islands, now connected with each other and with the island of Bombay by causeways and reclaimed tracts. The northern portion of Kolába contains docks, factories, together with other important commercial and industrial buildings; and is also the terminus of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. In the centre are the quarters of the European garrison of Bombay; and at the southern point, about 2½ miles south-west by south from Bombay Castle, are the lunatic asylum, the observatory, and the old lighthouse, for which was substituted in 1874 a lighthouse with first-class flashing dioptric light, about a mile seaward of the old lighthouse, on the 'Prongs,' a dangerous reef running south from Kolába Point. See *ante*, p. 419, for Kolába Island.

Kolábirá.—Chiefship in Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872) about 17,200, chiefly agriculturists, residing in 60 villages, on an area of 140 square miles, of which two-thirds are cultivated. Products—rice, pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and cotton. Principal villages—Kolábirá, which contains a good school; and Raghunáthpalli, with a population of about 1100. The chiefship was created in the time of Jeth Sinh, Rájá of Sambalpur, about 1760. During the Mutiny of 1857 the chief was hanged, and his son died an outlaw; but the chiefship was restored to the family after the amnesty. Kolábirá village is situated in lat. 21° 48′ N., long. 84° 12′ 30″ E.

Koláchel (*Colachy-Coleci*—Bartolomeo; possibly the *Kolias* of Strabo).—Town in Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 8° 10′ N., and long. 77° 19′ E., in the southernmost corner of India; containing 1038 houses and (1875) 4768 inhabitants. A place of yearly increasing importance. South Travancore coffee is here prepared and exported.

Koláchel is now a regular port for coasting steamers. Since 1870, the annual tonnage of ships calling has increased from 4000 to 37,000. The imports are valued at £13,500, the exports at £68,000; of the latter, 85 per cent. represent the trade in coffee. The port was of value some centuries ago, and was occupied by the Danes; it is referred to by Bartolomeo as a safe harbour well known to the ancients.

Koladyne.—River, Akyab, British Burmah.—*See* KULADAN.

Koláir.—Lake in Kistna District, Madras.—*See* KOLAR.

Kolak.—Port in the Párdi Subdivision of Surat District, Bombay. Lat. 20° 27′ 30″ N., long. 72° 57′ E. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1871-72—imports £938, and exports £4712.

Kolakambái.—River in the District of the Nílgiri Hills, Madras. Lat. 11° 13′ to 11° 22′ N., and long. 76° 46′ to 76° 48′ 45″ E.

Kolang.—Village in Kángra District, Punjab; one of the principal places in the Láhúl Subdivision. Situated on the right bank of the Bágha river, 10 miles above Kielang. Residence of the *negi* or headman for the whole Láhul valley.

Kolár.—A District in the State of Mysore, forming the eastern portion of the Nandidrúg (Nundydroog) Division. It is situated between 12° 46′ and 13° 36′ N. lat., and between 78° 5′ and 78° 35′ E. long., being bordered on the north-east and south by various Districts of the Madras Presidency. It contains an approximate area of 2577 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1871, of 618,954 persons. The administrative headquarters are at KOLAR town, on the right bank of the Pálár river.

Physical Aspects.—The District occupies that portion of the Mysore tableland immediately bordering the Eastern Gháts. The principal watershed lies in the north-west, around the hill of Nandidrúg, rising to 4810 feet above the sea, from which rivers radiate in all directions; and the whole country is broken by numerous hill ranges. The chief rivers are the Pálár, the South Pinákiní or Pennár, the North Pinákiní, and the Pápaghni, which are industriously utilized for irrigation by means of anicuts and tanks. In no other part of Mysore has the tank system been more fully developed. The entire water supply of the Pálár is thus intercepted, while of the North Pinákiní and its affluents upwards of 85 per cent. of the drainage is utilized. The largest tank is the Rámságar, which is capable of irrigating 1500 acres. The rocks of the District are mostly syenite or granite, with a small admixture of mica and felspar. There is one range of a soft ferruginous clay-slate, which yields gold in small quantities. The total yield of the precious metal by washing from the alluvial soil was estimated in 1876 at about 4 lbs. per annum. A licence has been granted to a European to 'prospect' the auriferous strata upon the scientific plan. The soil in the valleys consists of a fertile loam, formed from the finer particles

of the decomposed rocks washed down during the rains. On the higher levels, sand and gravel are found, and the cultivation is confined to dry grains and pulses.

The hills are covered with scrub jungle and brushwood. The only tract where the trees attain any size is in the neighbourhood of Nandidrúg, where an area of 7 square miles has been reserved by the Forest Department. In recent years, avenues of large trees have been planted along all the high roads, and the *rayats* are encouraged to plant groves of their own. The wild animals met with include bears, leopards, wild hog, and hyænas.

History.—The early history of Kolár is enshrouded in the usual Hindu legends, chiefly localized at the village of Avani, which is still a popular place of pilgrimage, as containing a *linga* set up by Ráma himself. The earliest authentic evidence derived from inscriptions shows that this region in primitive times formed part of the kingdom of the Pallavas, a dynasty overthrown by the Cholás, to whom is assigned the foundation of Kolár town. After the Cholás came the Ballála kings, who in their turn gave way to the powerful monarch of Vijáyanagar, in the early part of the 14th century. About this period arose the Gauda family, whose numerous branches gradually established themselves in various strong places throughout the modern Districts of Bangalore and Kolár. The Gauda chiefs appear to have made no claim to independence, but to have submitted themselves successively to every conqueror who was strong enough to exercise temporary authority in those troubled times, until they were swept away by the organized empire of Haidar Alí. The first Muhammadans to invade this tract were the Bijápur kings, whose general was the Marhattá Sháhjí, the father of Sivají the Great. In 1639, Shahjí obtained Kolar as a fief, which he transmitted to his son Venkojí or Ekojí, the founder of the Tanjore line. Subsequently Kolár was overrun by the Mughals, and placed under the government of Fateh Muhammad, whose famous son, Haidar Alí, was born at the little village of Budikot. In 1761, the District was formally ceded to Haidar Alí by the Nizám; and after the fall of Tipú in 1799, it was incorporated in the Hindu State of Mysore. The chief historical interest of modern times centres round the hill fort of Nandidrúg (Nundydroog), which was stormed by the British in 1791, under the immediate eye of Lord Cornwallis, after a bombardment of twenty-one days.

Two towns have a local history; viz., Chikballapur and Gumnáyakanpalya. The former was founded about 1479 by one of the Gauda family, and rapidly grew into the capital of a petty kingdom, whose rock fortress was at Nandidrúg. The *poligár* of his time successfully resisted the conquering Hindu Rájá of Mysore in the beginning of the 18th century; but, like the rest of his compeers, he fell before the

might of Haidar Alí, and his dominions were absorbed in Mysore. Gumnáyakanpalya was founded about one hundred years earlier, as the fortress of a *poligár*, whose line also was extinguished by Haidar Alí.

Population.—A *khánasumári* or house enumeration of the people in 1853-54 returned a total of 461,979 persons. The regular Census of 1871 ascertained the number to be 618,954, showing an increase of nearly 34 per cent. in the interval of eighteen years, if the earlier estimate can be trusted. The area of the District is returned at 2577 square miles, which yields an average of 240·2 persons per square mile. In the *táluk* of Sidlagháta, which is reckoned to be peculiarly healthy, this average rises to 586, the greatest density of population in all Mysore. Classified according to sex, there are 309,685 males and 309,269 females; proportion of males, 50 per cent. There are, under 12 years of age, 103,453 boys and 103,918 girls; total children, 207,371, or 33 per cent. of the population. The occupation tables are scarcely trustworthy, but it may be mentioned that 136,358 persons are returned as connected with agriculture, and 27,428 with manufactures and arts. The religious division of the people shows—Hindus, 592,652, or 95·75 per cent.; Muhammadans, 25,038, or 4·04 per cent.; Jains, 651, or 10 per cent.; Christians, 613, or ·09 per cent. The Hindus are further subdivided, according to the two great sects, into 390,535 worshippers of Vishnu, and 202,117 worshippers of Siva. The Bráhmans number 24,928, of whom the majority belong to the Smarta sect; the claimants to the caste of Kshattriya are returned at 6443, including 4141 Marhattás; the Vaisyas are represented by 11,486, of whom 8131 are Komatis. Of inferior castes, by far the most numerous is the Wokligas (170,399), who are agricultural labourers; next come the Bedars (56,772), hunters; the Kurubas (38,963), shepherds; the Banajigas (38,157), traders. The Lingáyats, who have always been influential in this part of the country, number only 9354; out-castes are returned at 111,487, wandering tribes at 4218, and wild tribes at 172. The Muhammadans, who muster thickest in the *táluk* of Kolár, are chiefly returned as Deccani Musalmáns. Out of the total of 613 Christians, 14 are Europeans and 31 Eurasians, leaving 568 for the native converts. According to another principle of division, there are 75 Protestants and 538 Roman Catholics.

The District contains 2892 primary (*asali*) populated towns and villages, with 292 houses of the better class, or over £50, in value, and 165,600 houses of the inferior sort. As compared with the area and the population, these figures yield the following averages:—Villages per square mile, 1·13; houses per square mile, 64; persons per village, 213; persons per house, 3·73. The 4 following towns each contain more than 5000 inhabitants:—KOLAR, 9924; CHIKBALLAPUR, 9882; SIDLAGHATA, 7009; HOSUR, 5751. There are altogether 11 munici-

palities in the District, with an aggregate municipal revenue in 1874-75 amounting to £1035, 10s. Apart from the towns already mentioned, the most interesting places in the District are the hill fort of Nandidrúg, with the sacred village of Nandi at its base, where a large cattle fair is held annually; and the hamlet of Budikot, famous as the birthplace of Haidar Alí.

Agriculture.—The agricultural products of Kolár are substantially the same as those of the neighbouring District of Bangalore, except that the abundance of tanks encourages more attention being paid to wet crops and vegetables. The staple food of the people consists of *ragí* (Cynosurus corocanus) and *jolá* (Holcus sorghum), both of which come under the category of 'dry crops.' Rice, also, is largely grown in the lower valleys, and nearly half the annual produce is exported. It is estimated that in ordinary years the surplus of the food crops, to the value of about £50,000, is exported to Bangalore and the adjoining Districts of Madras. Besides various pulses and oil-seeds, the miscellaneous crops include sugar-cane, poppy, tobacco, and mulberry for silkworms. Among vegetables are turmeric, garlic, chilli, and potatoes. The cultivation, also, of *viledele* or betel-leaf, tamarind, and *kalle káyi* or ground-nut is very considerable. Coffee is grown on about 100 acres in the neighbourhood of Nandidrúg. The following agricultural statistics are merely approximate:—Area under rice, 61,576 acres; wheat, 207; other food grains, 371,459; oil-seeds, 14,971; sugar-cane, 8590; vegetables, 3280; mulberry, 1048; tobacco, 586; poppy, 386; fibres, 63; cotton, 55. The very large number of tanks forming chains along all the river valleys has already been alluded to as an element in the scenery of the District. The total is 5497, themselves covering an area of upwards of 120,000 acres. As many as 400 can be readily counted from the summit of Nandidrúg. In addition to these tanks, irrigation is also practised from small channels branching off from ancient anicuts or dams in the rivers. Manure is largely used for sugar-cane, which flourishes best in the Mulbágal *táluk*. The indigenous cattle of the District are of a diminutive breed, but fine bulls are imported from the Madras frontier. Several large cattle fairs are held annually, of which the most frequented is at the village of Vanarási, where 60,000 bullocks sometimes change hands within the nine days during which the fair lasts. The fairs at Avani and Nandi are of scarcely second importance. In connection with these fairs, cattle shows with prizes have been instituted by Government, and the breeding of cattle has become a passion with well-to-do *rayats*. Buffaloes are commonly used for ploughing throughout the District. Sheep and goats are numerous, and the village of Gumnáyakanpalya is noted for a superior breed of the former animals. The wool, however, is of a coarse kind, only suited for native blankets. The town of Kolár and the surrounding

villages are celebrated for turkeys, which are exported in large numbers to the markets of Bangalore, Bellary, etc.

Manufactures, etc.—The staple industry of the District arises out of the extensive cultivation of sugar-cane, and consists of the manufacture of refined sugar, jaggery, and molasses. The production of raw silk, a business confined to the Muhammadan class of the community, has greatly declined in recent years, owing to the continued mortality among the silk-worms. The weaving of coarse cotton cloth and rough woollen blankets or *kamblís* is common throughout the District, as also are the making of common pottery and the pressing of oil. The returns show a total of 6960 looms and 379 oil-mills. In the mountainous *táluk* of Gumnáyakanpalya, iron ore is worked by native methods in considerable quantities.

The trade of the District is conducted at weekly markets and at large annual fairs. There are 7 market towns, where the average weekly attendance numbers over 1000. The principal fairs are those held at Nandi, attended by 50,000 persons; Avani, 40,000; Vanarási, 25,000: which are all important cattle fairs, besides having a religious character. It has not been observed that these large gatherings result in the propagation of any epidemic disease. Among exports from the District sugar holds the first place; the annual exportation is estimated at £30,000 of jaggery and £25,000 of refined sugar. Raw silk is exported to the value of £44,000; rice, £23,000; *ragí*, £16,000. Vegetables, betel-leaf, cotton cloth, opium, and *ghí* are also produced in sufficient quantities to leave a surplus for other Districts. Almost the sole import received in return is European piece-goods, valued, but manifestly over-valued, at £1,466,000. The imports of salt are returned at £5700. The Bangalore branch of the Madras Railway runs across the south of the District, with stations at Bowringpet or Kolár road and Malúr. The length of imperial roads is 158 miles, maintained at an annual cost of £1610; of District roads there are 270 miles, costing £978.

Administration. — In 1873-74 the total revenue of Kolár District, excluding forests, education, and public works, amounted to £119,446. The chief items were—land revenue, £97,470; *ábkárí* or excise, £9996; law and justice, £4283; *mohtarfa* or assessed taxes, £3472. The District is subdivided into 10 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, with 81 *hoblis* or minor fiscal units. In 1870-71, the number of separate estates was 678, owned by 78,247 registered proprietors or coparceners.

During the year 1874, the average daily prison population of the District jail was 124·15, and of the *táluk* lock-ups 23·44—total, 147·59, of whom 9 were women, showing 1 person in jail to every 4211 of the population. In the same year, the District police force numbered 59

officers and 408 men, and the municipal police 1 officer and 17 men—total, 585 men of all ranks, maintained at an aggregate cost of £4242. These figures show 1 policeman to every 4 square miles of area, or to every 1058 of the population, the cost being £1, 12s. 10d. per square mile and 2d. per head of population. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government in 1874 was 233, attended by 5547 pupils, being 1 school to every 11·06 square miles and 8·9 pupils to every 1000 of the population. In addition there were 102 unaided schools, with 1494 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Kolár closely resembles that of Bangalore, and shares in its general reputation for healthiness. The mean annual temperature is about 76° F. During the two years 1873-74, the maximum recorded was 95° in the month of May, the minimum 57° in February. The average rainfall for the year is 29·17 inches, which chiefly falls during the months of September and October. In former times, Kolár town was periodically attacked by cholera and other epidemics, introduced by the crowds of pilgrims that annually passed through. But attention to sanitary precautions on the part of the municipal authorities, and the construction of the railway, have effectually checked this evil. The vital statistics are far from trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that out of a total of 7620 deaths reported in 1872, 3167 were assigned to fevers, and 730 to bowel complaints. In 1874, the dispensary at Kolár town was attended by 87 in-patients and 5866 out-patients.

Kolár.—Chief town of Kolár District, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 8′ 5″ N., and long. 78° 10′ 18″ E.; 43 miles east-north-east of Bangalore by road, but also connected with it by rail from the Kolár road station at Bowringpet, 10 miles to the south. Pop. (1871), 9924, viz. 5022 males and 4902 females. The town contains the usual District offices, school, dispensary, barracks, jail, etc. The chief building is the tomb of Fateh Muhammad Khán, the father of Haidar Alí (*see* KOLAR DISTRICT). The mulberry is cultivated for the rearing of silkworms. Turkeys exported in large numbers to Bangalore, Bellary, and other places. Manufacture of *kamblís* or coarse blankets. Weekly fair. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £360.

Kolár (*Colair; Kolleru; Klugu;* possibly corrupted from *Kóvèrú*).—Lake in Kistna and Godávari Districts, Madras. Lat. 16° 30′ to 16° 45′ N., long. 81° 5′ to 81° 27′ E. A curious stretch of fresh water, half lake, half swamp, sometimes covering more than 100 square miles in the monsoon. In the dry weather the area is much reduced, and many parts are merely mud. A few small streams feed it, and the Mettapolliem river is its only outlet. At no time is it very deep. It abounds in waterfowl, and is fairly stocked with fish. Lake Kolár contains numerous fertile islets called *lankas*, many of which are

inhabited and highly cultivated. On the other hand, many of the smaller ones are submerged during floods. The origin of the unusual depression which forms the bed of the lake is unknown, but it possibly was the result of an earthquake. In very dry seasons the ruins of ancient villages are perceptible in the bed, and large quantities of charcoal and charred beams give support to the local tradition that this was once the scene of a conflagration, which was extinguished by a great flood; the latter caused by volcanic subsidence. Another hypothesis, common to the Kolár and the Chilká Lake in Orissa, explains these sheets of fresh water as caused by the land-making activity of the great rivers, acting together with the monsoon, which blows up an intervening beach or bank of sand between any low-lying unfilled tract and the sea. The inner low-lying tract receives the surrounding drainage, and becomes a shallow lake. The Godávari and the Kistna have pushed out their deltas on either side, leaving the area of the lake still to be filled up. At the present time its dimensions are gradually being reduced by reclamation and embankments.

Kole.—Town in the Karád Subdivision of Satára District, Bombay. Lat. 17° 14′ N., long. 74° 10′ E.; 31 miles south by east of Satára. Pop. (1872), 5137.

Kolhán.—Tract of country forming a Government estate in Singbhúm District, Bengal. Area, 1905 square miles, with 883 villages, 31,640 houses, and a pop. (1872) of 150,904 persons; density of population, 79 persons per square mile; persons per village, 171; persons per house, 4·8. The indigenous village system of the Kols, based upon a federal union of villages under a single divisional head-man, which is gradually dying out elsewhere in Chutiá Nágpur, still survives in this tract. A group of from 5 to 20 villages forms a *pirhi* or *pír*, each of which has its own *mundá* or village head, all of whom are subject to the authority of the *mánkí* or divisional head-man, who exercises the functions of divisional collector of rents and of divisional police superintendent within the limits of his *pír*. Every *mundá* or village head is responsible for the payment of the revenue, and for the detection and arrest of criminals in his own village, to the *mánkí* or divisional head of the *pír;* and this latter official is in his turn responsible to Government. For acting as revenue collectors, the *mánkís* receive a commission of one-tenth, and the *mundás* one-sixth, of the rent which passes through their hands. Besides these duties, the *mánkís* and *mundás*, each in his degree, have certain informal powers to decide village disputes and questions of tribal usage.

Kolhápur.—Native State within the British Political Agency of Kolhápur, in the Bombay Presidency. It lies between 15° 58′ and 17° 11′ N. lat., and between 73° 45′ and 74° 24′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the river Warna, which separates it from the British

District of Satára; on the north-east by the river Kistna (Krishna), separating it from Sángli, Miráj, and Kurundwád; on the east and south by the District of Belgáum; and on the west by the Sahyádri Mountains, which divide it from Sáwantwári on the south-west and Ratnágiri on the west. The State contains an area of 3184 square miles, and a population (1872) of 802,691 persons, inhabiting 1091 villages and 160,341 houses. Chief town and capital, KOLHAPUR.

Physical Aspects.—Stretching from the heart of the Sahyádri range eastwards into the plain of the Deccan, Kolhápur includes tracts of country of widely different character and appearance. In the west, along the spurs of the main chain of the Sahyádri Mountains, lie wild and picturesque hill slopes and valleys, producing little but timber, and till lately covered with rich forests. The central belt, which is open and fertile in parts, is crossed by several lines of low hills running east and west at right angles to the main range. Farther east, the land becomes more open, and presents the unpicturesque uniformity of a well-cultivated and treeless plain, broken only by an occasional river. Among the western hills are perched the forts of Panhála, Vishálgarh, Baura, Bhudhargarh, and Rungna, ancient strongholds of the Kolhápur chieftains. The State is watered by eight streams of considerable size; but though during the rainy months able to carry trading boats of 2 tons, none of these is so large that it cannot be forded in the hot season. The only lake of any importance is that of Rankála, near the town of Kolhápur. Its circumference is about 3 miles, and its mean depth 35 feet. The principal agricultural products are rice, millet, sugar-cane, tobacco, cotton, safflower, and vegetables.

Iron ore of three varieties is found in the Kolhápur territory. It is most plentiful in Vishálgarh, Panhála, and Kolhápur proper, near the main range of the Sahyádri Hills. In these places it is generally found near the surface, in laterite stones. Formerly the smelting of iron was an industry of some importance; but, owing to the cost of manual labour, the increased price of fuel, and the low rate of freights from England, the Kolhápur mineral cannot compete with that imported from Europe. Stone is the only other mineral product of the State. There are several good quarries, especially one in a place known as Jotibáis Hill, with a fine grained basalt, that takes a polish like marble. Game abounds, and the rivers yield large quantities of fish.

History.—The Rájás of Kolhápur trace their descent from Rájá Rám, a younger son of Sivají the Great, the founder of the Marhattá power. After the death of Rájá Rám in 1700, his widow placed her son Sivají in power at Kolhápur. But in 1707, when Sháhu, the son of Sambhájí, Sivají's elder son, was released from captivity, he claimed the sovereignty over all the possessions of his grandfather, and fixed his capital at SATARA. Between the two branches of the

family disputes continued for several years, till in 1731 a treaty was concluded, under the terms of which the Kolhápur family agreed to yield precedence to Sháhu, and Sháhu recognised Kolhápur as a distinct and independent principality. On the death of Rájá Rám's sons in 1760, the direct line of Sivají became extinct; and a member of the Bhonslá family was adopted under the name of Sivají II. The prevalence of piracy compelled the British Government to send expeditions against Kolhápur in 1765, and again in 1792, when the Rájá agreed to give compensation for the losses which the merchants had sustained since 1785, and to permit the establishment of factories at Málwán and Kolhápur. Internal dissensions and wars with the neighbouring States of Patwardháns, Sáwantwári, and Nipáni gradually weakened the power of Kolhápur. In 1811, a treaty was concluded with the British Government by which, in return for the cession of certain forts, the Kolhápur chief was guaranteed against the attacks of foreign powers; while on his part he engaged to abstain from hostilities with other States, and to refer all disputes to the arbitration of the British Government. During the war with the Peshwá in 1817, the Rájá of Kolhápur sided with the British. In reward, the tracts of Chikori and Manori, formerly wrested from him by the chief of Nipáni, were restored to him. Sháhájí, *alias* Báwa Sáhib, who came to the throne in 1822, proved a most quarrelsome and profligate ruler; and in consequence of his aggressions between 1822 and 1829, the British were three times obliged to move a force against him. On his death in 1838, a council of regency was formed to govern during the minority of Sivají III. Quarrels arose among the members of this council, and the consequent misrule led to the appointment by the British Government of a minister of its own. The efforts, however, which he made to reform the administration gave rise to a general rebellion, which extended to the neighbouring State of Sáwantwári. After the supression of this rising, all the forts were dismantled, and the system of hereditary garrisons was abolished. The military force of the State was disbanded, and replaced by a local corps. In 1862, a treaty was concluded with Sivají III., who was bound in all matters of importance to be guided by the advice of the British Government. In 1866, on his deathbed, Sivají was allowed to adopt a successor in his sister's son, Rájá Rám. In 1870, Rájá Rám proceeded on a tour in Europe, and, while on his return journey to India, died at Florence on the 30th November 1870. The present (1877) chief, who is the successor by adoption of Rájá Rám, is styled Sivají Mahárájá Chhatrapati IV. He is at present a minor, and is being educated by a special tutor under the supervision of the Assistant Political Agent. He holds a patent authorizing adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. The chief is

entitled to a salute of 19 guns, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences, without permission from the Political Agent.

Population.—The population of the territory under the Kolhápur chief was returned in 1872 at 534,560, and that of the feudatories at 268,131, making a total of 802,691. Of the whole number, 95½ per cent. are Hindus, including Jains, 4 per cent. are Musalmáns; and the rest, about ½ per cent., are Christians.

Trade, etc.—The principal manufactures are pottery, hardware, and coarse cotton and woollen cloth. Coarse sugar, tobacco, cotton, and grain are the chief exports; and sugar, spices, cocoa-nuts, piece-goods, silk, salt, and sulphur are the principal imports. The most noteworthy centres of local trade with permanent markets are Kolhápur town, Shirol, Wadgáon, Alta, Inchal-Karanji, Kágal, and Malkápur. Six principal lines of road pass through Kolhápur territory, the principal being that from Poona to Belgáum, which crosses the State from north to south.

Revenue, Administration, etc.—There are eleven more or less important States, feudatories of the Kolhápur Ráj; their chiefs pay a *nazar* to Kolhápur on the occasion of a succession, and also usually an annual contribution. Accounts of them will be found under their respective names; the principal are VISALGARH, BAURA, KAPSHI, KAGAL, and INCHAL-KARANJI. The gross annual revenue of Kolhápur State is estimated at £304,724. The actual income of the Rájá is given at £198,840. He maintains a military force of 1618 men. Exclusive of a few missionary institutions, there are in all 104 schools, of which one is a high school. The total number of pupils on the rolls is returned at 5105.

Climate.—At an elevation of about 1800 feet above the sea, Kolhápur enjoys on the whole a temperate climate. In the west, with its heavy rainfall and timber-covered hills and valleys, the air keeps cool throughout the year; but in the plain dry tracts beyond the hills, suffocating easterly winds prevail from April to June. During the hot weather months, the hill forts, rising about 1000 feet above the plain, afford a pleasant retreat. The ordinary forms of sickness are measles, fever, diarrhœa, cholera, dysentery, and small-pox.

Kolhápur.—Capital of Kolhápur State, Bombay, and residence of the chief; situated in lat. 16° 42′ N., and long. 74° 16′ E., opposite a gap in the Sahyádri Hills; 128 miles south by east of Poona, and 64 of Satára. Pop. (1872), 39,621. A picturesque native capital, thronged by traders from many parts, each in his own costume. Much has recently been done to improve the sanitation of the town, and to adorn it with handsome edifices. Some of the new public buildings of Kolhápur challenge comparison with the most successful efforts of modern Indian architecture.

Kolikodu.—Town in Malabar District, Madras.—*See* CALICUT.

Kolkoi (or *Korkoi*).—Village in Tenkarái *taluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 8° 40′ N., long. 78° 6′ E.; pop. (1871), 4683; number of houses, 1065. Now an inland town, but once a seaport at the mouth of the Támrapúrni river, and the earliest seat of South Indian civilisation, where (according to tradition) the brothers Síran, Chola, and Pandya dwelt together before founding the three kingdoms that bore their respective names. Κόλκοι ἐμπόριον is mentioned by Ptolemy; and in the Periplus as the seat of King Pandya's pearl-fishery. It is referred to in the Peutinger Tables as 'Colcis Indorum,' and gave its name to the Colchic Gulf, now known as Manaar. The silt of the Támrapúrni river now spread seaward, so that this once celebrated port is at present 3 miles from the coast.

Kolladam.—The northern mouth of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, Madras.—*See* COLEROON.

Kollamallái.—Mountain range in Salem District, Madras; lying in the Ahtur and Námkal *táluks*. Lat. 11° 10′ 30″ to 11° 28′ N., and long. 78° 20′ 30″ to 78° 31′ 30″ E. Estimated area, 180 square miles; 12 villages, with 2969 houses and (1871) 9296 inhabitants. General elevation from 2500 to 3500 feet; highest point in the range, 4663 feet above sea level. The population includes a number of Malayálís, or hillmen of the same race as those described in the article on the SHEVAROY HILLS. The Kollamalláis are cultivated in many parts, and furnish the surrounding country with forest produce—timber, firewood, and charcoal. They bear an evil reputation at certain seasons for malarious fever of a deadly type.

Kombái.—Town in Peryakulam *táluk*, Madura District, Madras. Lat. 9° 51′ 30″ N., long. 77° 17′ E.; pop. (1871), 8708; number of houses, 1942. One of the 72 'Pálaiyams' of Madura.

Komorin. — Cape in Travancore State, Southern India. — *See* COMORIN.

Komulmáir. — Pass in Udáipur (Oodeypore) State, Rájputána. Lat. 25° 9′ N., long. 73° 40′ E.; 50 miles north of Udáipur, and 90 south-east of Jodhpur. Thornton states that it runs through a series of rugged ravines in the Aravalli range, and is defended by a fortress, which was acquired in 1818 by the East India Company. Elevation above sea level, 8353 feet.

Konch.—*Tahsíl* and town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KUNCH.

Kondapallí.—Town in Bezwára *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras. Lat. 16° 37′ 59″ N., long. 80° 34′ 17″ E.; pop. (1871), 5207; number of houses, 1476. Now unimportant, but formerly a fortress of some strength, giving its name to a Province known to the Musalmáns as Mustáfanagar or Mustáfábád. It was in fact the capital of one of the

5 Northern Circars, and was a frequently contested point for two and a half centuries. Taken by the Báhmani dynasty in 1471, it was conferred as a *jágír* on Malik Bhúrú in 1478. About 1516 (?), the Hindu hero king, Krishna Ráya, captured the fort and surrounding country in his victorious march northward (a triumph specially recorded in the Simháchalam inscription), and made them over to the Orissa Rájá. But a few years later (1521), Kutab Sháh defeated the forces of the Telingána Rájás (possibly allied with those of Orissa), under the walls of Kondapallí, and took the fort. With the exception of an unsuccessful attack by the neighbouring Rájá of Kondavír in 1560, Kondapallí remained in the undisturbed possession of the sovereign of the Deccan, till with the rest of the Northern Circars it passed to the French in 1752, and to the English in 1765. The old enclosure of the walled city is now chiefly occupied by corn-fields, but the ruins of the citadel remain on the overhanging hill. A small British garrison was stationed here till January 1855. The barracks, as well as old native military buildings, still exist.—*Indian Antiquary*, vol. i. p. 184.

Kondavír (*Condaveed; Kondavídu; Kondhir; Kondaver*—Hamilton).—Town in Narsaranpet *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras. Lat. 16° 15′ 15″ N., long. 80° 17′ 25″ E.; pop. (1871), 2090; number of houses, 396. Once the capital of a Province of the same name, extending from the Kistna to the Gundlakamma (Orme). It is referred to in the Simháchalam inscription (1524), and in grants as late as 1759, the name during that period interchanging with Murtizanagar or Gantúr. It is situated on a small range of hills of the same name, averaging 800 feet above sea level (the highest point being the sacred hill KOTAPPAKONDA, 1587 feet), some 15 miles south-west of Gantúr. The fort, 1050 feet (described by Mr. Boswell in the *Indian Antiquary*, vol. i. p. 182), is of large extent even now, and many parts of it, including granaries, palace, etc., are in good repair. There are one or two European bungalows here, and the place was for a time used as a sanitarium by the officers at Gantúr.

Kondká (*Chhuikadán*). — Chiefship attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces; lying at the foot of the Sáletekri Hill, and dating from 1750 A.D. The area in the plains, which is fertile and well cultivated, comprises 101 villages; the largest of which contains 400 huts or houses, with over 1000 inhabitants. The chief resides in a substantial stone building, standing in a fortified square. He is a Bairágí, but belongs to a sect among which marriage is permitted. He pays to the British Government a yearly tribute of £1100.

Kongnoli.—Town in the Chikori Subdivision of Belgáum District, Bombay; situated in lat. 16° 32′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 24′ E., 4 miles north of Sadalgi. Pop. (1872), 5143. Paper for packing purposes and for envelopes is manufactured to a large extent.

Konkan.—A name applied to the lowland strip along the southern portion of the Bombay Presidency, lying between the Western Gháts and the sea. The term has no very distinct administrative signification, and its former geographical limits have become less strictly defined than of old. The coast strip, to which the word was once applied, is a fertile level tract, varying from 1 or 2 to about 30 miles in breadth between the sea and the mountains. It is watered by hill streams, and at parts intersected by tidal backwaters, but has nowhere any large rivers. A luxuriant vegetation of palms rises along the coast, the cocoa-nut plantations forming an important source of wealth to the villagers. Splendid forests cover the Gháts on its eastern boundary. The crops are abundant; and owing to the monsoon rainfall being precipitated upon the Gháts behind, the Konkan is peculiarly exempt from drought and famine. In an administrative sense, the Konkan forms one of the 4 Divisions of the Bombay Presidency, the others being the Deccan, Guzerat, and Sind. It includes, according to the classification in the Parliamentary Abstract, the 5 following Districts, all of which see separately :—

	Area in Square Miles.	Population (Census of 1872).
Kanara (North)	4,235	398,406
Ratnágiri	3,789	1,019,136
Kolába	1,482	350,405
Bombay	22	644,405
Tanna	4,052	847,424
Total	13,580	3,259,776

The Konkan, therefore, as an administrative Division, is bounded by Guzerat on the north, by the Deccan on the east, by the Madras Presidency on the south, and by the Indian Ocean on the west. Gujaráthí is spoken in the northern Districts of the Konkan, Kanarese in the southern, and Marathí at various centres of population, especially in the west central Districts. The great city and harbour of Bombay lie about one-third down its length from the north. The Portuguese territory of Goa used to form its southern limit; but the District of North Kanara has been transferred from Madras to the Bombay Presidency, and now constitutes the southernmost District of the administrative Division known as the Konkan.

Konnagar.—Village in Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Húglí river. Lat. 22° 42′ N., long. 88° 23′ E. Inhabited by a considerable Bráhman community, but not otherwise of any importance. Station on the East Indian Railway, 9 miles from the Howrah terminus.

Kooladan (*Koladyne*).—River in Akyab District, British Burma.—*See* KULADAN.

Koosee.—River in Purniah District, Bengal.—*See* KUSI.

Kopaganj.—Town in Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 1′ N., and long. 83° 36′ 30″ E., on the Gorakhpur and Ghazipur road. Pop. (1872), 6633. Founded about the year 1745 by Irádat Khán, Rájá of Azamgarh. Exports of sugar and indigo; imports of piece-goods, metal, and manufactured wares.

Kopilás.—Hill in Dhenkánal State, Orissa. Lat. 20° 40′ 40″ N., long. 85° 48′ 53″ E.; height 2098 feet. The hill takes its name from a temple situated near its summit, which in February of every year is visited by about 10,000 pilgrims, on which occasion a large fair is held, and considerable trade carried on. At the top of the hill is a table-land, which might be made a pleasant place of residence during the hot months.

Koppa.—*Táluk* in Kádúr District, Mysore. Area, 503 square miles, of which only 75 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 35,779, including 577 Muhammadans, 145 Jains, and 94 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £11,565, or 3s. per cultivated acre. The headquarters of the *táluk* are at Hariharpur.

Koppa.—Village in the *táluk* of the same name in Kádúr District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 32′ 4″ N., long. 75° 21′ 51″ E. It contains the sources of the Tunga river, and the sacred site of Sríngeri. Country mountainous, and clothed with the finest forest. Products—coffee, rice, areca-nut, and cardamoms.

Kora.—Western *tahsíl* of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; lying along the northern bank of the Jumna, and consisting of a cultivable plain, intersected by jungle-clad ravines. Area, 230 square miles, of which 137 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 91,207; land revenue, £20,393; total Government revenue, £22,441; rental paid by cultivators, £32,895; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 9⅛d.

Kora (*Corah*).—Decayed town in Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 6′ 35″ N., long. 80° 24′ 20″ E.; pop. (1872), 3001, or with the neighbouring town of Jahánábád, 6248. Situated on the old Mughal road from Agra to Allahábád. Capital of a *subah* under the Mughal Empire, and still retaining many architectural relics of its former magnificence. Amongst them the most noticeable are—the Báradári of Ráo Lál Bahádur, a large enclosed garden with two pleasure-houses, built towards the close of the last century, under the Oudh Wazírs; the Sorahi or mausoleum, a mile west of Jahánábád; and the *sarái* or travellers' halting-place in Jahánábád, with handsome old walls and gates. The Thákurdwára, opposite the Báradári, is a modern building of some interest. Trade in metal-work, whips, and skins.

Korá (or *Káro*).—Hill in Bánkurá District, Bengal; on the Birbhúm and Bánkurá road. An elongated hill, from 350 to 400 feet high, rising precipitously from the plain on the west, north, and south, but from the east by a very gentle and long ascent.

Korábága.—Small chiefship in Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 30 miles north-west of Sambalpur town. Pop. (1866), 2336, chiefly agriculturists, residing in 18 villages, on an area of 12 square miles, half of which is covered with jungle. Chief produce, rice. Korábága, the largest village, though with a pop. under 300, contains a school. It is situated in lat. 21° 45′ 30″ N., and long. 83° 42′ 30″ E.

Korácha.—Chiefship on the eastern border of Chánda District, Central Provinces, comprising 75 villages, the largest being Mánpur. Through this place numerous Chhatísgarh Banjárás pass to and from the eastern coast with grain.

Korangi.—Town in Godávari District, Madras.—*See* CORINGA.

Korári Kalán.—Town in Unao District, Oudh. Lat. 26° 27′ N., long. 80° 35′ E.; 16 miles south-west of Mohán, and 10 north-west of Unao; 4 miles distant from Rasulábád. Peopled about 1100 years ago by a Kunwár of the Bhar tribe. About six centuries later it passed into the possession of Iswári Sinh and Bisrám Sinh, Chauhán *thákurs* of Máinpurí, who exterminated the Bhars, and whose descendants still possess the land. Pop. (1869), 2198, viz. 2148 Hindus and 50 Muhammadans. Temple to Mahádeo.

Koratagiri (*Kortágiri*). — *Táluk* in Túmkúr District, Mysore. Area, 292 square miles, of which 103 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 73,933, including 1765 Muhammadans and 488 Jains; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £8537, or 2s. 8d. per cultivated acre. Soil favourable both for crops and cattle.

Koratagiri (*Kortágiri*).—Municipal village in Túmkúr District, Mysore, on the left bank of the Suvarnamukhi river, in lat. 13° 31′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 16′ 20″ E.; 16 miles by road north of Túmkúr. Pop. (1871), 2414; municipal revenue (1874-75), £36; rate of taxation, 3½d. per head. Fort, founded by a local chieftain, was dismantled by Tipú Sultán. Glass bangles are manufactured. Headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name.

Korba.—Chiefship in north of Biláspur District, Central Provinces, with a scattered population (1870) of 27,464 persons, residing in 232 villages, on an area of 823 square miles; comprising both hill and plain. The chief village, Korba, is situated on the river Hasdú, 40 miles east of Biláspur, in lat. 22° 21′ N., and long. 82° 45′ E. Though wild and poorly cultivated, the estate possesses timber and coal, and with better communications would be valuable. At present it exports silk. The chief is a Kanwar.

Koreá. — Native State of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal, lying between 22° 55′ 50″ and 23° 49′ 15″ N. lat., and between 81° 58′ 15″ and 82° 48′ 15″ E. long. Bounded on the north by Rewá State; on the east by Sargujá; on the south by Biláspur District, in the Central Provinces; and on the west by Chóng Bhukár and Rewá. Koreá

consists of an elevated tableland of coarse sandstone, from which spring several abruptly scarped plateaux, varying in height, and irregularly distributed over the surface. To the east is the Sonhát plateau, with an elevation of 2477 feet; the north of the State is occupied by a still higher tableland, with a maximum elevation of 3367 feet. In the west a group of hills culminates in Deogarh Peak, 3370 feet. Several streams rise in the hills, of which the largest is the Heshto, a tributary of the Mahánadi. Large forest tracts of *sál* timber exist, but have not hitherto been utilized. Alternating with the forest areas are wide stretches of pasture land, from which grazing dues to the extent of about £150 a year are realized. Iron is found throughout the State, and a tribe of Kols, called Agariás from their occupation, are largely engaged in iron-smelting. Crops consist of rice, wheat, barley, Indian corn, *maruá*, pulses, oil-seeds, cotton, etc. Jungle products, stick-lac and resin. Tigers and wild elephants formerly committed serious depredations; but of late years the former have been reduced by increased rewards for their destruction, and the elephants have been captured or driven out by successful *khedá* operations. The area of the State is 1631 square miles, containing in 1872, 225 villages, 5538 houses, and a total population of 21,127 persons. Classified according to religion, the Hindus number 10,807, or 51·1 per cent.; Muhammadans, 140, or 0·7 per cent.; other sects, consisting of aboriginal tribes still professing their primitive faiths, 10,180, or 48·2 per cent.; total, 21,127, viz. 11,093 males and 10,034 females; proportion of males, 52·5 per cent.; average density of population, 13 per square mile. Of aboriginal tribes, the most numerous and influential are the Gonds (4644), the two leading sub-proprietors of the State belonging to this tribe. Next in importance are the Cheros (3009). The principal village and the residence of the chief is Sonhát, situated on the plateau so named, at an elevation of 2477 feet; lat. 82° 35′ N., long. 23° 28′ E. The chief's family call themselves Chauhán Rájputs, and claim descent from a chief of that clan, who conquered Koreá 600 years ago. The present chief is a minor. Revenue in 1874-75, £696; tribute, £40.

Koreá.—Hill range in the tributary State of Koreá, Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal, the highest point of which is situated in lat. 23° 31′ 30″ N., and long. 82° 18′ 30″ E. Principal peaks:—(1) Deogarh, 3370 feet; (2) Jutársuka, 3238 feet; (3) Khoro, 3219 feet; (4) Churi, 3010 feet; (5) Kuhi, 3007 feet; (6) Gagadand, 2945 feet; (7) Gogragarh, 2847 feet; (8) Machigarh, 2839 feet; (9) Jogi, 2805 feet; (10) Tithitangarh, 2790 feet; (11) Bunjári, 2775 feet; (12) Jangiá, 2746 feet; (13) Damaur, 2715 feet; (14) Gorba, 2708 feet; (15) Baskata, 2657 feet; (16) Mardanighát, 2561 feet; (17) Sula, 2534 feet; (18) Maráon, 2505 feet; and (19) Báman, 2217 feet.

Kori (*Lakhpat*).—Port in the Native State of Cutch, Bombay. Lat.

23° 49′ N., long. 68° 48′ 30″ E.—(For nautical details see Taylor's *Sailing Directory*, part i. p. 339. London, 1874. Wm. H. Allen & Co.)

Kortalaiyáru.—River in North Arcot and Chengalpat Districts, Madras.—*See* CORTELLIAR.

Korungaláikudi. — Agricultural town in Melúr *táluk*, Madura District, Madras. Lat. 9° 54′ 45″ N., long. 78° 33′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 9199; number of houses, 1996.

Kosala.—Ancient Division of India. It was estimated by Hiouen Thsang (7th century) at 6000 *li* or 1000 miles in circuit. Its frontiers are not named; but we know from the Pilgrim's Itinerary that it must have been bounded by Ujjain on the north, by Maháráshtra on the west, by Orissa on the east, and by Andhra and Kalinga on the south. The limits of the kingdom may be roughly described as extending from near Burhánpur on the Tápti, and Nanda on the Godávari, to Ratanpur in Chhatísgarh, and Nawágadha near the source of the Mahánadi. Within these limits the circuit of the large tract assigned to Kosala is rather more than 1000 miles.

Kosa Nág.—Mountain lake and place of pilgrimage in Kashmír State, Punjab, on the north side of the Fateh Panjal Mountains. Lat. 33° 30′ N., long. 74° 52′ E. According to Thornton, it is three-quarters of a mile in length, by 500 yards in breadth. Supplied by the melting of the snow. Gives rise to the river Veshau, a tributary of the Jhelum. Venerated by the Hindus under the name of Vishnu Pádh, from a legend that the god produced it by stamping with his foot. Estimated elevation above sea level, 12,000 feet.

Kosi.—North-western *tahsíl* of Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the western bank of the Jumna, and consisting mainly of a dusty plain, intersected by ravines. Area, 152 square miles, of which 128 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 73,808; land revenue, £15,208; total Government revenue, £16,728; rental paid by cultivators, £19,144; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 1½d.

Kosi.—Municipal town in Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Pop. (1872), 12,770. Stands in lat. 27° 47′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 28′ 5″ E., on the open plain, 10 miles west of the Jumna, and 29 miles north-west of Muttra town. During the Mutiny, the District officials took refuge at Kosi for a while, but were compelled to flee by the defection of the Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) force. Anglo-vernacular school, Government charitable dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1390; from taxes, £925, or 1s. 5⅝d. per head of population (12,776) within municipal limits.

Kosígi.—Town in Adóni *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 51′ N., long. 78° 17′ E.; 18 miles north of Adóni. Pop. (1871), 6760;

number of houses, 1113. An irregularly built town, containing not a single good street. It is situated at the foot of a rock, on which stand the ruins of fortifications and temples. According to tradition, Kosígi was founded by Surápah Naik, an officer of the Anagundi Rájá, who visited the place on a marauding expedition. Not far from the town is a curious isolated rock known by the name of 'The Sisters'—Akkachellelu. The north-west line of the Madras Railway has a station here, the average annual number of passengers at which is about 13,000.

Kotá.—Agricultural town in Gúdúr *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 14° 3′ N., long. 80° 5′ E.; pop. (1871), 5493; number of houses, 1029. Great annual fair, formerly a 'swinging' festival.

Kotá.—A small town in Wún District, Berar. Lat. 20° 31′ 30″ N., long. 78° 19′ E.; 14 miles north-east of Yewatmál. Contains 453 houses. Famous for its weekly market, the largest in the District.

Kot Adu.—Town in Muzaffargarh District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 28′ 14″ N., long. 71° 0′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 5552. A large but unimportant agricultural village.

Kotágiri.—Hill station and tea-growing centre in Nílgiri District, Madras. Lat. 11° 20′ to 11° 20′ 10″ N., long. 76° 51′ to 76° 56′ E.; contains about 40 houses and 220 inhabitants. It is in the Paraganád Nád, lying at the north-east end of the plateau, 14 miles from Utákamand (Ootacamund), at an average height of 6500 feet above sea level. In the opinion of residents, it has the best climate to be found on these hills; and the Marquis of Dalhousie preferred it to Utákamand. The station, which was founded in 1830, has 12 or 15 European houses, and a small church. The residents are nearly all proprietors of neighbouring tea estates. The annual rainfall is about 50 inches. Near Kotagiri is the military sanitarium of Dinhatti, now abandoned. A *ghát* or pass in bad order leads from Kotágiri to the plains of Coimbatore.

Kotah.—A State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Rájputána Agency and the Government of India. The State lies between 24° 30′ and 25° 51′ N. lat., and between 74° 40′ and 76° 59′ E. long. Bounded on the north and north-west by the river Chambal, which separates it from Bundí (Boondee) State; on the east by Gwalior, the Tonk District of Chupra, and by part of Jhaláwár; on the south by the Mokandarra Hills and Jhaláwár; and on the west by Udáipur (Oodeypore). Area, according to the Topographical Survey Reports, 3797 square miles; estimated pop. 310,000 souls.

Physical Aspects.—Kotah State slopes gently northwards from the high tableland of Málwá, and is drained by the Chambal with its tributaries, all flowing in a northerly or north-easterly direction. The Mokandarra range, from 1200 to 1600 feet above sea level, runs from south-east to north-west, forming the southern border of Kotah, and

separating it from Jhaláwár. The Mokandarra Pass through these hills, in the neighbourhood of the highest peak (1671 feet), has been rendered memorable by the passage of Colonel Monson's army on its disastrous retreat in 1804. The defile is strikingly picturesque, and forms one of the chief outlets between the Deccan and Northern India. The hills are for the most part clothed with a thick jungle of stunted trees and undergrowth. There are no forests of any size, but several extensive game preserves, chiefly covered with grass. The largest of these is about 7 miles from the city of Kotah, and is 12 miles in length, with an average breadth of 4 miles. Of the tributaries of the Chambal within the State, the Káli Sind, with its feeder, the Parwán, is the principal. It enters Kotah from the south, and joins the Chambal near the village of Pipurda. The Parbátí flows due north for 80 miles, and falls into the Chambal in the extreme north-eastern corner of the territory. It forms the eastern boundary of the State for a considerable portion of its length, separating it from Tonk on the south and from Gwalior on the north. The rivers contain trout and *mahsír*, besides other fish; crocodiles are numerous, and those in the Chambal are of large size. There are no natural lakes, but numerous small artificial tanks, for irrigation purposes, have been made by throwing masonry embankments across water-courses. The wild animals of the State include the 'golden' lion, the tiger, panther, four species of leopards, two of cheetahs (hunting leopard), hyæna, wolf, bear, jackal, wild dog, etc.; the bison, the *sámbhar*, the nílgau, the *chítal* (spotted deer), and antelope. Kotah is celebrated for its parrots; birds of every variety abound.

History.—The territory of Kotah is an offshoot from Búndi (Boondee), forming with that State the tract named Haráotí after the dominant tribe of Rájputs. About the year 1625, Kotah and its dependencies were bestowed on Madhu Sinh, second son of Ráo Rattan of Búndi, in acknowledgment of his services during the campaign which forced the imperial prince, who afterwards became the Emperor Sháh Jahán, to flee almost unattended from Burhánpur. Madhu Ráo, who assumed the rank and title of Rájá, ruled for several years. He distinguished himself as a commander in the Mughal service; and his territory was augmented until it touched Málwá on one side, and Búndi on the other. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Mokand Sinh, who with his four brothers fought desperately in a battle at Ujjain against the revolt headed by Prince Alamgír, afterwards the Emperor Aurangzeb. All the brothers were slain, with the exception of the youngest, Kishor Sinh, who, though desperately wounded, eventually recovered. The son of Mokand Sinh, Jagat Sinh, succeeded to the dignity of Rájá. In the beginning of the 18th century, the State, already weakened by civil dissensions, was

attacked by Jáipur (Jeypore), and also by the Marhattás, who successfully enforced their claims to tribute. Kotah was only saved from absolute ruin at this juncture by the talents of the minister Zalím Sinh, into whose hand the Maháráo Umed Sinh surrendered all power (*see* JHALAWAR). By playing off one party against another, Zalím Sinh succeeded in piloting the State safely through the storms of a period in which the whole of Central India was desolated by Marhattá, Pindárí, and other predatory hordes; and in the course of forty-five years, he raised Kotah to the rank of one of the most flourishing and powerful States in Rájputána. He was one of the first Rájput chiefs to co-operate with the British Government for the suppression of the Pindárís. Through Zalím Sinh a treaty was made in 1817 by which Kotah was taken under British protection, the tribute formerly paid to the Marhattás was made payable to the British Government, who accounted to Sindhia for his share; and the Maháráo agreed to furnish troops when required. A supplementary article vested the administration in Zalím Sinh and his heirs for ever. Even during Zalím Sinh's lifetime, on the succession of a new chief, inconvenience was felt through this arrangement, and a British force had to be sent to insist upon it. On Zalím Sinh's death, his son was notoriously unfit to govern the State; and hence finally it was resolved, in 1838, with the consent of the chief of Kotah, to dismember the State, and to create a new principality of Jhaláwár as a separate provision for the descendants of Zalím Sinh (*see* JHALAWAR). The Maháráo's tribute was reduced by £8000, which sum was to be paid by Jhaláwár, and he agreed to maintain an auxiliary force at a cost of not less than 3 *lákhs* of rupees (say £30,000). This auxiliary force, known as the Kotah contingent, mutinied in 1857. The Maháráo's troops also revolted, and murdered the Political Agent and his two sons. The Maháráo made no attempt to assist the Political Agent, and, as a mark of the displeasure of Government, his salute was reduced from 17 to 13 guns.

The present Maháráo, Chhatra Sál, a Chauhán Rájput, was born about 1837. He succeeded his father in 1866, and on his accession he was restored the full salute of 17 guns, and has also been guaranteed the right of adoption.

A few years later, the confusion into which the affairs of the State had fallen induced the Maháráo to request the interference of the British Government. Nawáb Sir Fáiz Alí Khán Bahádur, K.C.S.I., was thereupon appointed to administer the State, subject to the advice and control of the Governor-General's Agent in Rájputána. Since his departure from Kotah, the administration has been superintended by a British political officer.

There are in Kotah many nobles, generally the descendants of

former Rájás through a cadet branch, who, as a rule, hold their estates on a semi-feudal tenure. The State claims to be the absolute owner of all the soil in the territory. Even *jágírdárs* of the highest class have no power to dispose of their lands by sale. A *jágír* once granted on a feudal tenure cannot be resumed except for disloyalty or misconduct; the grantee has, however, the power of alienating a portion of his grant as a provision for younger sons or other near relatives, and he may raise money on it by mortgage, but this cannot be foreclosed. The present policy of native chiefs tends towards making their subjects of the agricultural class mere tenants-at-will. Yet, as shown by Colonel Tod, the *rayats* have certain *bapoti* (or ancestral occupancy) rights, which even arbitrary native governments are chary of interfering with. So long as the cultivator can pay all his instalments of rent due, his land cannot be resumed or granted to another. All classes depend for their subsistence on the produce of the soil. The majority of the cultivators are poverty-stricken, and live from hand to mouth, although many tracts produce enough grain for exportation in considerable quantities after the needs of home consumption are satisfied.

Crops, etc.—In addition to the usual Indian grains, wheat, cotton, opium, and a little tobacco of good quality are cultivated. Rotation of crops is known and practised to a certain extent. The manufactures are very limited. Cotton fabrics are woven, but are being rapidly superseded by the cheap products of Bombay and Manchester. Articles of wooden furniture are also constructed. The chief articles of export from the State are opium and grain. The imports chiefly consist of salt, cotton, and woollen cloth.

Population.—No regular Census has ever been taken of the whole territory. In 1876, the population was estimated at 310,000 souls, calculating upon an average deduced from a rough enumeration taken in certain Districts. About 90 per cent. of the feudal *jágírdárs* belong to the clan of the ruling family.

Administration.—The estimated gross revenue for the year 1876 was £253,275, of which the land yielded over £170,000. The expenditure amounted to £228,044, of which £38,472, including £20,000 for maintenance of a contingent force, formed tribute due to the British Government, and £1439 tribute due to Jáipur (Jeypore).

The criminal court at the capital is presided over by a Faujdár, with an assistant, and a staff of ministerial subordinates. He has the power of inflicting penalties up to six months' imprisonment and a fine of £5, and has charge of the jail and city police. A special constabulary, and one central jail for the whole State, have been established at the capital since the introduction of the present administration. For police purposes, the State is divided into 19 *thánás* (Districts), with certain

road guards for the protection of travellers and traffic. Guards are detailed by turns from the different regiments, and relieved yearly.

No regular department of education has as yet been devised for Kotah. There is at the capital, a school in which English, Persian, and Hindí are taught. The staff consists of 7 teachers, and the average attendance of pupils is 132. The State maintains no schools; but the principal villages possess indigenous institutions, where Gurus or priests of the Jain sect teach arithmetic and writing chiefly to sons of Bráhmans and Banias, with a view to fitting them for a political or mercantile career.

The city post office is the only imperial institution of the kind in the State. The only postal route connected with Kotah is that from Jhalra Patan to Deoli.

The British contingent supplied by the State of Kotah is now known as the Deoli Irregular Force. The troops which the Maháráo is allowed to maintain are limited to 15,000 men of all descriptions; there are also 70 field and about 30 other guns in the State.

Climate.—The climate is very sultry during the prevalence of the hot winds at the commencement of summer, and is considered unhealthy during the rainy season. Endemic fever and spleen invariably appear after the close of the rains. The other diseases most prevalent are ophthalmia, venereal, chest, and rheumatic affections. Cholera occasionally breaks out in epidemic form. In 1875, the annual rainfall registered at the city of Kotah was 26·7 inches.

Kotah.—The principal town of the State of the same name in Rájputána. It is situated in lat. 25° 10′ N., and long. 75° 52′ E., on the right bank of the river Chambal (here crossed by a ferry), and on the route from Nasírábád (Nusseerábád) to Ságar (Saugor). East of the town extends an extensive artificial lake, the Kishor Ságar, which affords great facilities for irrigation. The gardens, however, are neither well laid out nor well cared for. The town is of considerable size, and contains many Hindu temples and some mosques. The central jail of the State is established at Kotah, and, for police purposes, the town is divided into 25 wards. There is also a State dispensary, and one school, in which English, Persian, and Hindí are taught. The post office in the city is the only imperial institution of the kind within the State. A municipal committee has been formed, and a commencement has been made towards the conservancy and sanitation of the city; but the funds for this purpose are small, and the institution is looked upon with disfavour by the people. The heat in Kotah is very great, and there is much sickness during the rainy season. Dr. Moore has pointed out that Kotah, with the Chambal on one side, and the Kishor Ságar Lake on the other, combining to produce a copious percolation of water underneath the city, must always be an unhealthy locality.

Kotaha.—*Parganá* of Umballa (Ambálá) District, Punjab; consisting of the hill portion of the District, and stretching down for a short distance into the plains. Lat. 30° 32′ 30″ to 30° 45′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 51′ to 77° 13′ E. Area of the hill tract, 97 square miles; pop. (1868), 5660, or 58 per square mile. Bounded on the west by the Pinjaur valley, and on the north and east by the Náhan or Sírmúr Mountains. The town of Kotaha itself stands in the plains. The hills run in two parallel ranges, continuations of the Siwálik chain in Náhan. Between them flows the river Ghaggar, while the forest of Morni clothes their sides. In its midst lie two considerable lakes, at an elevation of about 2000 feet above sea level. A hill divides their surface, but some underground communication apparently exists, as the level of both always remains the same. The people regard them as sacred, and a great gathering annually takes place at a ruined temple in honour of Krishna, on the banks of the larger lake. The village and fort of Morni are perched high up among the mountain-sides. The people are a simple race, seldom visiting the plains, and clinging to their proprietary rights with the usual tenacity of hillmen. Kunets, Bháts, Gújars, and Kolis form the principal castes. Originally ruled by Rájput Thákurs, owing allegiance to the Sírmúr Rájá, Kotaha became an independent principality about the 15th century; and after the suppression of the Gúrkha invasion by the British in 1815, was made over once more to its native rulers. In 1849, it came under the same reforms as the other cis-Sutlej States, since which period the representatives of the chiefs have become simple *jágírdárs*. Hinduism is the almost universal religion. Polyandry, frequent in the neighbouring hill tribes, does not occur. No roads exist passable even by a pony, and the villages are mere clusters of huts. Nevertheless, cultivation has spread over most of the available hillsides, and irrigation from the Ghaggar or from drainage fertilizes every possible field. The inhabitants are extremely industrious, and take great pains in cultivating their terraced slopes.

Kotai.—Remains of an old city on the shores of the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh), with several ruined temples of perhaps the earlier part of the 10th century. The sun temple, known as Rá Lákhás, ascribed to Lakhá Phuláni, who is said to have fixed his capital here for a time, is built of the yellowish and red stone used also at Khedá, and is roofed in a peculiar way. The aisles are covered by a sort of groins, like the side-aisles in some Chaitya caves; the nave is roofed the same way as at the Amarnáth temple,—the central area being covered with massive slabs hollowed out in the centre, in which a pendentive has been inserted. Outside, it has a slanting roof divided into four sections of slightly different heights, that next to the spire being the highest, and the remote end the lowest; each section is terminated by a neatly

carved gable-end. The whole has been built without any cement, and most of the stones are hollowed out on the under or inner side as if for the purpose of making them lighter. The porch has long since fallen away. The door of the temple has been neatly carved with the nine *graha* or patrons of the planets over the lintel; the jambs are also carefully sculptured. The shrine door is elaborately carved with two rows of figures on the frieze, Ganapati on the lintel, and the jambs richly ornamented. The area behind the central one is roofed with large slabs, carved with sixteen female figures linked in one another's arms in a circle, with the legs crossed and turned towards the centre. Each holds a rod or bar in either hand, the left hand being bent down and the right up, and so interlaced with the arms of the figures on either side. In two neat *gokhles* or niches, advanced from the front wall of the shrine, and with two colonnettes in front of each, there have been standing images in *alto relievo*, neatly canopied by a lotus flower and buds growing over the *muguts* or head-dresses. Enormously elongated *munis* or *bhringis* seem to have been the supporters.

Beyond a ravine to the north-east are fragments of two other temples facing west. Of the first, and higher up of the two, only plain square pillars of the *mandap* and the lower part of the *vimána* are standing. The general style is the same as that of the other temples, but much plainer. The stones are cut away below as at the first temple. The lower of the two is also only a fragment of the shrine of a Súrya temple, with Ganapati on the lintel, and the nine *graha* on the frieze. There are no figures outside. Foundations still remain on this part of the hill, showing that whole edifices must have been carted away for building purposes elsewhere.—BURGESS' *Archæological Survey of Western India.*

Kotálpur.—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*tháná*) in Bardwán District, Bengal; situated on the road from Bánkurá and Bishnupur to Jahánábád, and thence to Calcutta. Lat. 23° 1′ 15″ N., long. 87° 38′ 35″ E.

Kotápalli.—Town in Cuddapah (Kadapah) District, Madras. Lat. 14° 48′ 30″ N., long. 79° 6′ 45″ E.

Kotápalli.—Subdivision of Bastar Dependency, Central Provinces; comprising 60 villages, the chief of which are Pamar and Teklet, with an area of 400 square miles. The population is composed of Koís, Máriás, and Telingas. The teak forests, once very valuable, have been overworked. The timber is felled and dragged to the Tál river, and then floated down the Godávari. Kotápalli village is situated in lat. 18° 13′ N., and long. 80° 49′ 30″ E.

Kotappakonda (or *Yellamunda*).—Hill village and celebrated shrine in Narsaranpet *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras. Lat. 16° 10′ N., long. 80° 5′ E.; 1587 feet above sea level. Pop. (1871), 1902; number

of houses, 290. The highest point of the Kondavír range, with a temple to Siva.

Kotár (*Kotaur*, Κοττιάρα—Periplus; Κοττιάρα Μητρόπολις—Ptolemy; *Cottara*—Peutinger Tables; *Kodu-aru*, 'river-fort'—Malayálam).—Port in Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 8° 9′ 30″ N., long. 77° 28′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 7338; number of houses, 1879. A very old town with long irregular streets. Contains an ancient pagoda with an important inscription. A sub-magistrate and *munsíf* are stationed here. A good school, a Catholic church, and a weaving colony are the only other features of Kotár. The place is now little frequented.

Kotaráikarrái.—Town in Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 9° 0′ 15″ N., long. 76° 49′ 15″ E.

Kotáyam (*Cottayam*, *Kotium*).—Town in Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 9° 36′ N., long. 76° 34′ E.; pop. (1871), 6333; number of houses, 1271. Headquarters of Kotáyam District, and seat of the magistrate and civil courts, post office, high-class school, and several churches. Situated on the bank of a small river running into the great Cochin backwater. The centre of the Syrian Christian community, who form the majority of the population. Their churches are very old and interesting. The Church Mission Society has been at work since 1816, and the Syrian bishop also resides here.

Kotbetta.—Mountain in the territory of Coorg, being the highest peak of a spur which branches off from the Subrahmanya range of the Western Gháts, about 9 miles north of Merkára, 5375 feet above the sea. The summit divides into two peaks, on one of which stands a small stone temple dedicated to Siva. There are also two reservoirs of water, one for the use of the Bráhmans, the other for the Coorgs. The view is reckoned the finest in all the magnificent highlands of Coorg.

Kotchandpur.—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*tháná*) in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Kabadak river. Lat. 23° 24′ 45″ N., long. 89° 3′ 20″ E. The largest seat of the sugar trade and manufacture in the District, both it and the adjacent village of Sulaimánpur being covered with refineries. Estimated out-turn of manufactured sugar about 100,000 *maunds*, or 3500 tons, worth about £60,000.

Kothariá.—One of the petty States of Hállár in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 6 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue was estimated at £1500 in 1876; tribute of £94 is paid to the British Government, and £29 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Kothi.—Petty hill State in the Punjab, subordinate to Keunthál. Lat. (centre of State) 31° 7′ N., long. 77° 15′ E.; area, 36 square miles; estimated pop. 2500; estimated revenue, £600. The chief, Bishnu Chánd, a Rájput, received the title of Ráná for services rendered during the Mutiny of 1857. His family originally came from Patná in Bengal.

Kothi. — A petty State in Baghelkhand, under the Baghelkhand Agency, the Central India Agency, and the Government of India. Lat. 24° 4' to 24° 53' N., and long. 80° 39' to 80° 54' E. The town of Kothi is in lat. 24° 45' E., long. 80° 40' N. The ruling family have long retained possession of their *jágír*, by timely submission to the successive conquerors of Bundelkhand. They were never dispossessed either in the time of the Bundela Rájás or of Alí Bahádur. In 1810, a *sanad* was granted to Lál Dúniapat, the *jágírdár* then in possession, making him directly dependent on the British Government, like the other chieftains in Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand. The present chief, Rang Bahádur Sinh, Ráis of Kothi, is a Rájput by caste. The revenue of the State in 1875 was about £3400; the population in the same year was estimated at 7000; the area is about 90 square miles. The chief exercises jurisdiction within his own estate, independent of the British courts of law, except in crimes of a heinous nature, or where Europeans are concerned, when the jurisdiction lies with the Political Agent.

Kothide.—A petty State in the Deputy Bheel Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. The Bhúmia of Kothide, Moti Sinh, born about 1850, is a younger branch of the Garhi family. He holds certain villages on the condition of being responsible for robberies committed.

Kotípalli. — Sacred village in Rámachandrapur *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 16° 40' N., long. 82° 6' E.; pop. (1871), 1844; number of houses, 431. This village, situated on the left bank of the Gautama Godávari, is the only portion of the District which belongs to the Mahárájá of Vizianágaram, with the exception of a few yards of land at Rájámahendri (Rájahmundry). Kotípalli is considered by the Hindus a very sacred place; and the name (*Koti*, 'a crore,' and *phalam*, 'fruit') is derived from the notion that every act of devotion performed there will be repaid ten-million-fold. Near the pagoda the river is looked upon as peculiarly sanctifying.

Kot Kamáliá.—Municipality and ancient town in Montgomery District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 5695, consisting of 2953 Hindus, 2706 Muhammadans, and 36 Síkhs. Situated in lat. 30° 43' 45" N., and long. 72° 42' E., on the old high north bank of the Rávi, 12 miles from the present bed of the river. Distant from Montgomery 40 miles west, from Chíchawatni railway station 17 miles north. Identified by General Cunningham with one of the towns in the Malli country taken by Alexander; ancient mound of brick ruins adjoins the present site. Tradition assigns the foundation of the modern town to Khán Kamál, a Kharal chieftain, in the 14th century. Uninteresting place, with low and mean-looking houses. Since the British annexation, a brisk trade in the produce of the Rávi lowlands has sprung up, and greatly increased its prosperity. In 1857, the insurgent tribes

held the town for a week, and completely sacked it. Trade chiefly with Jhang and the west. Police station, post office, schools; *sarái*, with accommodation for European travellers. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £242, or 10⅛d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Kot Kángra.—*See* KANGRA (TOWN).

Kotkhái Kotgarh.—*Tahsíl* of Simla District, Punjab.

Kotra Nayáni.—One of the petty States of Hállár in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 4 independent tribute-payers. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £600; tribute is paid of £54 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £14 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Kotrang.—Municipal town in Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Húglí, about 7 miles above Howrah. Lat. 22° 41′ 20″ N., long. 88° 24′ E. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 5572; Muhammadans, 1237; Christians, 2; total, 6811, viz. 3729 males and 3082 females. Municipal income (1871), £205; expenditure, £171; rate of taxation, 7¼d. per head. The village is principally noted for its brick manufactories, and for a large workshop belonging to the Calcutta municipality.

Kotra Pithá.—One of the petty States of North Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 13 villages, with 5 independent tribute-payers. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £6000; and tribute of £485 is paid to the British Government, and £72 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Kotra Sangání.—One of the petty States of Hállár in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 21 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £6000; and tribute of £907 is paid to the British Government, and £108 to Junágarh.

Kotri (*Kotree*).—*Táluk* of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Lat. 25° 13′ 45″ to 26° N., and long. 67° 57′ to 68° 30′ E.; area, 684 square miles; pop. (1872), 23,643; revenue (1873), £5080, of which £3787 was derived from imperial and £1293 from local sources.

Kotri.—Town in Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, and head-quarters of the *táluk*. Pop. (1872), including the neighbouring hamlets of Khánpur and Miáni Múltáni, 7949, consisting of 5166 Muhammadans, 2455 Hindus, 304 Christians, and 24 Parsís. Situated in lat. 25° 21′ 41″ N., long. 68° 21′ 37″ E., on the right bank of the Indus, here confined by a tolerably permanent bank. Kotri has been placed in considerable danger, however, by sudden and violent inundations of the Báran mountain torrent, to protect it from which a dam was erected some years since. Northern terminus of the Sind Railway, which communicates with the seaport of Karáchi (106 miles). By the river, here 600 yards wide, and from 9 to 10 feet deep in ordinary seasons, Kotri has regular communications with Sukkur (270 miles), Mithánkot (430 miles), and Múltán (570 miles). Besides the steamers, native vessels go up and down with merchandise. The river bank, crowded with flotilla steamers, barges, and small native craft, all discharging or collecting

cargo, often presents an animated scene, not to be found at any other station nearer than Sukkur (Sakkar). Sidings convey goods from the railway to the river by zigzag routes, so constructed as to suit any condition of the stream, in flood or drought. Headquarters station of Deputy Collector, Civil Surgeon, Settlement Officer for all Sind, Conservator and Registrar of the Indus, and judge of subordinate civil court. Protestant and Roman Catholic churches. Civil hospital, court-house, subordinate jail, post office, Government and other schools, and travellers' bungalow. The Indus Steam Flotilla (amalgamated with the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway) maintains an extensive establishment, having its offices in the old fort, with workshops for the repair of steamers and barges. The Company also owns a large floating dock on the river, capable of receiving its steamers for alterations. The European quarter, north and west of the native town, stands embosomed in foliage, handsome trees lining all its well-kept and neatly laid out roads. This portion of the town contains the library and Mechanics' Institute. The railway station and buildings in connection have a purely temporary character. Local trade inconsiderable; large transit traffic between Karáchi and the Punjab; steamers go up the river about once a week in the busy season. The articles of merchandise sent upwards comprise beer, wine, and spirits for the European troops quartered in the Punjab; metals, railway materials, piece-goods, and silk. The return trade consists principally of wool, cotton, grain, oil-seeds, indigo, *ghí*, oil, saltpetre, and sugar. Water from Kotri is forwarded to Karáchi, especially for the manufacture of ice and for drinking purposes. Government ferry plies between Kotri and Gidú Bandar (for Haidarábád). Málik Sardár Khán, chief of the Númria clan, holds almost all the town in *jágír*. Unimportant village before the British conquest, except in a military point of view. Encamping place in 1839 of the Bombay division of the British army advancing upon Afghánistán. Municipality, established 1854; annual income, from £700 to £1000. Epidemic of cholera in 1869, since which date great attention has been paid to sanitary arrangements. In 1878, the Indus Valley State Railway was opened from Kotri to Sukkur, by which the importance of Kotri as a place of trans-shipment has been greatly diminished.

Kottapatam (*Kotapatnam*).—Town in Ongole *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 14° 7′ N., long. 80° 9′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 6991; number of houses, 1529.—*See* ALLUR.

Kottayam.—Town in Travancore State, Southern India. —*See* KOTAYAM.

Kottúr.—Town in Polláchi *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras; situated at the foot of one of the passes in the Anaimalai Hills, in lat. 10° 32′ N., and long. 77° 2′ E. Pop. (1871), 6972; number of houses, 1399.

Koung-tsí.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 1280; gross revenue, £176.

Kourtalam.—Town in Madras.—*See* COURTALLAM.

Kovílam.—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras.—*See* COVELONG.

Kovúr (*Kóvúru*).—Town in Nellore *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 14° 30′ N., long. 80° 2′ E.; pop. (1871), 5062; number of houses, 1072. An agricultural centre, 3 miles north of Nellore town, on the bank of the Pennár.

Koyákhái.—River of Orissa. A deltaic offshoot of the Mahánadi, which bifurcates from the main stream opposite Cuttack, and in its turn throws off numerous distributaries, and finally finds its way into the Bay of Bengal, or the Chilká Lake, as the Kusbhadrá, Bhárgavi, and Dayá.

Koyambatúr.—District *tahsíl* and town, Madras.—*See* COIMBATORE.

Kranganúr (*Cranganore*).—Town in Cochin State, Madras.—*See* KODUNGALUR.

Krishna.—District and river, Madras.—*See* KISTNA.

Krishnaganj.—Town and headquarters of police circle (*thána*) in Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Mátábhángá river. Lat. 23° 25′ N., long. 88° 45′ 50″ E. One of the principal seats of trade in the District.

Krishnaganj.—Subdivision of Purniah District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 54′ 15″ to 26° 35′ N., and long. 87° 39′ 30″ to 88° 33′ 45″ E.; area, 1340 square miles, with 865 villages, 88,473 houses, and a pop. (1872) of 564,430 persons. Muhammadans, 346,330, or 61·4 per cent.; Hindus, 217,803, or 38·6 per cent.; Christian, 1; 'others,' 296; total, 564,430, viz. 297,129 males and 267,301 females. Proportion of males in total population, 52·6 per cent.; average density of population, 421 per square mile; villages per square mile, ·65; persons per village, 653; houses per square mile, 66; persons per house, 6·4. This Subdivision comprises the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Bahádurganj, Krishnaganj, and Káliáganj. In 1870-71, it contained 1 magisterial and revenue court, with a regular police force of 99 men, besides 2553 village watchmen; cost of Subdivisional administration, including courts and all police, £11,512.

Krishnaganj.—Headquarters of above Subdivision, and of a police circle (*thána*), in Purniah District, Bengal; situated on the high road to Dárjíling, east of the Mahánanda river. Lat. 26° 6′ 28″ N., long. 87° 59′ 13″ E. The town and immediately surrounding villages form a municipal union, containing, in 1872, a population numbering 4351 males and 4139 females—total, 8490. Municipal income in 1874-75, £403, derived from a house tax; average incidence, 1s. per head of the population. The public offices are situated 4 miles north-west of the town, at the village of Bháliádángi, where there is also a civil

court, sub-registry office, English school, and charitable dispensary. The police station, post office, and staging bungalow are in Krishnaganj itself.

Krishnagar (*Krishnanagar*).—Headquarters Subdivision of Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 17′ to 23° 48′ 45″ N., and long. 88° 10′ to 88° 50′ 45″ E.; area, 698 square miles, with 632 villages or towns, 68,789 houses, and a pop. (1872) of 334,076 persons. Hindus, 188,292, or 56·4 per cent.; Muhammadans, 143,575, or 43 per cent.; Christians, 1963, or ·6 per cent.; 'others,' 246; total, 334,076, viz. 161,355 males and 172,721 females. Proportion of males in total population, 48·3 per cent.; average density of population, 479 per square mile; villages per square mile, ·91; persons per village, 529; houses per square mile, 99; persons per house, 4·9. This Subdivision comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Krishnagar, Hánskhálí, Krishnaganj, Chaprá, Nakasipárá, and Káliganj. In 1870-71, it contained 9 courts of all kinds, and a regular police force of 342 men, besides 870 village watchmen; cost of Subdivisional administration, £17,428.

Krishnagar.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Jalangi river. Lat. 23° 23′ 31″ N., long. 88° 32′ 31″ E. The municipal limits comprise an area of 7 square miles, 7000 houses, and a population (1872) of 26,750 persons, subdivided as follows:—Hindus, 18,114; Muhammadans, 8076; Christians, 560; total, 26,750, viz. 12,871 males and 13,879 females. Municipal income (1876-77), £1867; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 2⅛d. per head. Besides the usual Government offices and courts, Krishnagar is also a station of the Church Missionary Society and of a Roman Catholic Mission, each body having its own church and schools. The town is a seat of considerable trade, and is noted for its manufacture of coloured clay figures, a speciality carried on by a few artists of the *kumbhar* or potter caste.

Krishnagiri (*Kistnagiri*).—Town in Krishnagiri *táluk*, Salem District, Madras. Lat. 12° 32′ N., long. 78° 15′ 40″ E.; containing, with Daulatábád, 1486 houses and (1871) 7982 inhabitants, of whom 17 per cent. are Musalmáns, chiefly Sepoys. Situated on the Madras-Bangalore road, the headquarters of the *táluk*, and formerly military key to the Báramahál. It consists of two portions, Old and New Krishnagiri, the latter also known as Daulatábád. Both portions are clean, and well laid out in broad streets. To the north towers the *durgam* or fortified hill, rising almost perpendicularly 700 feet over the town. Dilapidated ramparts, reservoirs, and ruined barracks now mark its former purpose. Such were its capabilities for defence, that it never was carried by assault. In 1767, and again in 1791, British troops attempted it unsuccessfully, and on several occasions during our operations against Mysore, it was found necessary to blockade or mask it.

In 1768, it surrendered to a blockading force, and was held by a British garrison for some years, until restored by treaty.

Krishnái.—River of Assam, which rises in the Gáro Hills to the north of the Arbelá range, near the village of Mandálang-girí, and, flowing north into Goálpára District, falls into the Brahmaputra a few miles above Goálpára towns. Its tributaries in the hills are the Banji and Rangri. The principal place on its banks is the market village of Jirá, where it debouches upon the plains. In the hills the stream is only used for floating down timber and dug-out canoes, but in the plains it becomes navigable for boats of 2 tons burthen for a distance of 22 miles.

Kubá.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £300.

Kubattúr.—Village in Shimoga District, Mysore, anciently called Kuntala-nagara. Associated by tradition with King Chandrabasa of the *Mahábhárata*, whose romantic story is told at greater length in the Kanarese *Jáimini Bhárata*. Ruins of temples in the Chalukyan style of architecture still exist.

Kú-bhyú.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), inclusive of Gún-gnyeng-dan circle, now added to Kú-bhyú, 8740; gross revenue, £1643.

Kú-bhyú.—Revenue circle in Thayet-myo District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 35 square miles, of which about 8 are cultivable. Products—rice, sesamum, cotton, maize, thatching grass, etc. Pop. (1876), 3345; gross revenue, £541.

Kuch Behar.—Native State, regarded, for certain administrative purposes, as forming part of the Rájsháhí Kuch Behar Division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. It is situated between 25° 57′ 40″ and 26° 32′ 20″ N. lat., and between 88° 47′ 40″ and 89° 54′ 35″ E. long., entirely surrounded by British territory, being bordered by the Western Dwárs of Jalpáigurí on the north and by Rangpur District on the south. The area was returned in 1876 at 1291·83 square miles; and the population, according to the Census of 1872, numbers 532,565 persons. The administrative headquarters and the residence of the Rájá are at KUCH BEHAR town.

Physical Aspects.—The State forms a level plain of triangular shape, intersected by numerous rivers. The greater portion is fertile and well cultivated, but tracts of jungle are to be seen in the north-east corner, which abuts upon the Province of Assam. The general green of the arable fields is only broken by bamboo clumps and orchards, which surround the homestead of each *jotdár* or substantial farmer. The soil is uniform in character throughout, consisting of a light, friable loam, varying in depth from 6 inches to 3 feet, superimposed upon

a deep bed of sand. The whole is detritus, washed down by torrents from the neighbouring Himálayas.

The rivers all pass through the State from north to south, with a slight inclination towards the east, on their way from the mountains to join the main stream of the Brahmaputra. The following six are navigable for small trading boats throughout the year, and are nowhere fordable :—The Tístá, Singímárí, Torshá or Dharlá, Káljání, Ráidhak, and Gadádhar. There are, besides, some twenty minor streams which become navigable only during the rainy season. The river beds are nowhere strongly defined. The streams have a tendency to cut new channels for themselves after every annual flood, and they communicate with one another by cross-country water-courses. These fluvial changes have scattered over the country many pools and marshes of stagnant water. There are no embankments or artificial canals, nor are any mineral products known to exist.

History.—As is the case with many of the petty Native States throughout India, the royal family of Kuch Behar lays claim to a divine origin, in order to conceal an impure aboriginal descent. There can be no doubt that this region contained the capital of the ancient Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp, which was overthrown by the Afghán kings of Gaur towards the close of the 15th century. Local traditions of the national dynasty still live in the memories of the people, and the ruins of more than one of their capitals are pointed out at the present day. On their downfall, according to all accounts, succeeded a period of anarchy, during which the land was overrun by wild tribes from the north-east. Among these the Kochs came to the front, and ultimately founded the kingdom of Kuch Behar. The first rulers were evidently powerful princes, for their influence extended over the greater part of Assam and Bhután, and they were able to maintain a show of independence against the Mughal Nawábs of Bengal. But when the British entered into relations with the State its power was at a very low ebb.

The generally received tradition makes one Hájo, of the Koch tribe, the earliest known founder of the dynasty; but according to a second legend, more popular at Court, the family trace back to a Mech called Heriyá. Both stories agree in introducing two women, Hirá and Jirá, who are variously described as sisters or as wives of a common husband. The part assigned to Jirá is unimportant; but the beauty of Hirá attracted the love of the great god Siva, by whom she became the mother of a son, Visu or Biswa Sinh, the first king of Kuch Behar. Hence it is that all the members of the ruling family bear the name of Náráyan or Lord. Indeed, all remembrance of the Koch tribe is carefully avoided at Court. The common people, at least those who have not embraced Islám, call themselves by the high-sounding title of Rájbansí or 'royal-born'; and the official appellation of the State is Níj

Behar, *Níj*='own' or 'peculiar,' being used to distinguish the country from Behar proper.

The greatest monarch of the dynasty was Nar Náráyan, the son of Visu Sinh, who began to reign about 1550 A.D. He conquered the whole of Kámrúp, and built temples in Assam, of which ruins still exist bearing inscriptions with his name. He compelled the Deb Rájá of Bhután to pay tribute, and extended his power southwards over what is now part of the British Districts of Rangpur and Purniah. To this reign also is attributed the introduction of the well-known Náráyaní currency, the privilege of coining which has not yet been entirely abolished. But the Koch kingdom did not long retain its independence. Nar Náráyan divided his Assam possessions among his brothers, where their descendants are to be found at the present day as wealthy *zamíndárs.* His son, Lakshmí Náráyan, who succeeded him in Kuch Behar, came into collision with the Mughal empire, and was carried away prisoner to Delhi, whence he returned shorn of the attributes of sovereignty. The history of the State now loses all general interest. The Mughals closed round it from the south, though they never actually annexed it, as a revenue-paying unit, to the Province of Bengal. On the north, the Bhutiás commenced a regular system of depredations, and went so far as to assert the right of interfering in the succession to the throne. The internal affairs of the State also fell into deplorable confusion. In accordance with the curse of the Hindu political system, three families, all scions of the royal stock,—the Ráikat of Báikanthpur, the Názir Deo, and the Díwán Deo,—each claimed a hereditary position which was inconsistent with unity of administration, and did not hesitate to call in the foreign foe to support their pretensions.

It was under these circumstances that the East India Company gained their first knowledge of Kuch Behar. In 1772, the Názir Deo, having been driven out of the country by his rivals, who were aided by the Bhutiás, applied for assistance to Warren Hastings, then Governor-General of Bengal. A detachment of Sepoys was accordingly marched into Kuch Behar; the Bhutiás were expelled, after a sharp resistance, and forced to sue for peace through the intervention of the Lama of Thibet. The treaty made upon this occasion, bearing date April 1773, is the only authoritative document to determine the relations now existing between the two parties. By the third clause, the Rájá acknowledges subjection to the Company, and consents to his country being annexed to the Province of Bengal. In subsequent clauses, he promises to make over to the Company one-half of his annual revenues, according to an assessment to be settled by the Company. The precise amount of this moiety was not determined until 1780, when it was fixed by the Collector of Rangpur at Sikká Rs. 62,722, equivalent to Company's Rs. 67,700 (say £6770), which

sum has continued to be paid into the treasury of Goálpára up to the present day. As to the important question of the amount of interference which the British might exercise in the internal administration, the treaty is entirely silent. No doubt it was hoped that things would now go on quietly; and even in subject *zamíndárís* at this time, the British were not inquisitive about misgovernment, provided that there were no outbreaks of violence, and the revenue was punctually paid. But though the Bhutiás had been driven out, the rivalry of domestic faction continued unabated. Anarchy was rendered yet more intense by a long minority, and the worse evil of the regency of a Rání. Conspiracies and murders repeatedly demanded the armed interference of the Collector of Rangpur. A commission of two civil servants was nominated in 1788 to inquire into the state of the country. In their report they are careful to point out that the Rájá 'had made only a partial and voluntary surrender of his rights, and maintained his independence unimpaired in his domestic administration.' They concluded by recommending the appointment of a Resident or Commissioner at the town of Kuch Behar. This office subsequently became merged in that of Governor-General's Agent for the North-east Frontier; and its occupant was usually too much engaged with the troublous affairs of Assam to pay any attention to Kuch Behar. The little State went on after its own fashion for many years, presenting a unique picture of the merits and demerits of native Bengalí administration.

But in 1863, the death of the Rájá, leaving a son and heir only ten months old, attracted the attention of the Government. It was resolved that a British Commissioner should undertake the direct management of affairs during the minority of the prince. No organic changes were effected beyond what was absolutely necessary; but an attempt has been made to give tone and vigour to the administration, by the example of administrative energy and judicial uprightness. Among the many reforms introduced, the following are the most noteworthy:—A complete survey of the State, accompanied by a settlement of the land revenue and a record of all rights in the soil; the reorganization of the police, and the establishment of an education department; good carriage roads have been constructed, to connect the State with adjacent commercial centres; rivers have been bridged, plantations of valuable trees laid out, and an efficient system of postal and telegraphic communication established. The young Rájá has been carefully educated at the Patná College. In 1878, he married a daughter of Bábu Keshab Chandra Sen, and in the same year he paid a visit to England.

People.—The Census of 1872, which was carried out with less elaborate forms of returns than in British Districts, returned a total population

of 532,565 persons, residing in 1199 *mauzás* or villages and in 81,820 houses. The area of the State was taken at 1307 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 407; villages per square mile, 0·91; houses per square mile, 63. The average number of persons per village is 444; of persons per house, 6·5. Classified according to sex, there are 278,585 males and 253,980 females: proportion of males, 52·3 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—102,189 boys and 75,367 girls; total children, 177,556, or 33·3 per cent. of the total population. The occupation returns are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that the total number of male adults connected with agriculture is returned at 160,960, as against 15,436 non-agriculturists. The ethnical division of the people, which applies to the adult males only, shows—5 Europeans; 1 Chinese and 12 Nepálís; 865 aborigines; 117,095 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 9624 Hindus, subdivided according to caste; 708 persons of Hindu origin, not recognising caste; 48,086 Muhammadans. The great bulk of the population is undoubtedly of mixed origin, in which the aboriginal element strongly predominates. The aborigines proper are poorly represented, the Morangs numbering 412 adult males, the Gáros 226, and the Mechs 148. But the semi-Hinduized aborigines, with the addition of the Muhammadans, who are not ethnologically to be distinguished from them, make up 93 per cent. of the total population. The Rájbansís alone, the name by which the Koch tribe is known at the present day in its original headquarters, number 111,125 adult males, or 63 per cent. of the whole. The Koch or Rájbansí is a widely spread tribe, evidently of aboriginal descent, which is found throughout all northern Bengal, from Purniah District to the Assam valley. In ethnical affinities, they are apparently connected with the Indo-Chinese races of the north-east frontier; but they have now become largely Hinduized, especially in their own home, where the appellation 'Koch' has come to be used as a term of reproach. They have adopted exclusive caste habits, and pride themselves upon their purity in eating and drinking. But it is charged against them that their numbers are largely recruited by the offspring of mixed marriages and illicit connections. Of the Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 1164 adult males; the Kshattriyas or Rájputs, 299; the Káyasths, 810. The most numerous caste is that of the Koerís from Behar, numbering 1674. Classified according to religion, the adult male population consists of—Hindus, 127,928, or 72 per cent.; Muhammadans, 48,086, or 27 per cent.; the remainder is made up of 5 European Christians, 1 Chinese Buddhist, and 376 'others.' There are a few members of the Bráhma Samáj, who have no regular place of meeting. The Vaishnavs are returned at 708 adult males.

KUCH BEHAR town, which contains the palace of the Rájá, and has

7132 inhabitants, is the only populous place in the State. Even villages, in the ordinary sense of the word, are unknown. Out of a total of 1199 *mauzás* returned in the Census Report, as many as 1078 have a population of less than 500 persons apiece. The people do not gather into hamlets of any sort, but each well-to-do family lives apart in its own homestead. Within the State are situated the extensive ruins of two ancient walled cities, known as Dharma Pál's city and Kamatápur, capitals of the Kámrúp monarchy before the rise of Kuch Behar.

Agriculture.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the State, being grown on about three-fourths of the total cultivated area. The *áman* or *haimantik* harvest, reaped in December and January, furnishes about 55 per cent. of the food supply; the *áus* or *bítari*, about 21 per cent., the remainder being made up by millets, wheat, and various sorts of pulses. Jute and tobacco are largely grown for exportation, over an area that is increasing year by year. Manure, in the form of cow-dung, is used by the cultivators for special crops, the quantity being determined by the number of cattle they keep. Irrigation is rarely practised. Lands are occasionally allowed to lie fallow, but the principle of the rotation of crops is unknown. The average out-turn of an acre of rice land varies from 11 to 20 cwts., valued at from £1, 11s. to £2, 13s. The value of a second crop, if obtained from the same field, would be about £1 additional. The rates paid by all classes of cultivators are practically fixed by the Government Settlement, which is to last for twelve years. The Rájá is the actual owner of the soil; and he deals directly only with the *jotdárs*, substantial farmers, who rarely cultivate the land themselves, but let it out to under-tenants called *chukánidárs*. These again sub-let, and the actual cultivator is the *ádhiár*, who has no interest in the soil, but receives a certain share of the produce. According to the Settlement now current, the *jotdár* pays a rent of 3s. an acre, and is expressly prohibited from exacting an increase of more than 25 per cent. from the *chukánidár*, who in his turn is laid under similar restrictions with regard to his under-tenant. At the same time, an effort has been made to improve the position of the *ádhiárs*, by giving them some degree of fixity of tenure. It is reported that the cultivators of Kuch Behar are generally in a better position than men of the same class in the neighbouring Districts of Bengal.

The ordinary rates of wages appear to have trebled within the past thirty years. Both common labourers and skilled artisans require to be imported from the south. In 1850, a coolie received only 3s. a month; he now (1877) gets 14s. In the same period, the wages of an agricultural labourer have risen from 4s. to 10s. a month; and those of a local artisan from 5s. to 16s. On the other hand, the price of food grains would seem to have remained stationary during the last ten years.

Common rice, which fetched 4s. 9d. per cwt. in 1861, is reported to have sold at 4s. 1d. per cwt. in 1870. The maximum price reached in 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, was 10s. 11d. per cwt.

Kuch Behar is not specially exposed to the calamities of either flood or drought. Heavy rain in the Bhután Hills sometimes causes inundation. On two occasions in recent years, in 1854 and in 1873, the failure of the crops, due to insufficient local rainfall, has been so extensive as to require relief operations on the part of the authorities. In the latter year £20,000 was expended on this account. These occurrences, however, are so rare that no system of irrigation works or embankments has ever been thought desirable; and the means of communication are now sufficiently ample to prevent local scarcity from intensifying into famine. If the price of rice were to rise in January to 8s. 2d. per cwt., that should be regarded as a sign of approaching distress.

Manufactures, etc.—The people generally make their own cloth, mats, baskets, etc. within their own families. The only special industries are the weaving of a strong silk from worms fed on the castor-oil plant, and of a coarse jute cloth, used for screens and bedding. An artisans' school has recently been established at Kuch Behar town, and several skilled workmen have been engaged by the Government to teach their trades.

The external trade of the State is annually on the increase. Its conduct is chiefly in the hands of Márwárí immigrants from the north-west. The system of registration at Sirájganj unfortunately fails to record the entire river traffic of Kuch Behar. The returns for the year 1876-77 show a total export valued at £152,683, against imports valued at only £55,837. The chief articles of export are jute (166,200 *maunds*), tobacco (159,300 *maunds*), oils (£8833), timber (£7281); the imports are almost entirely confined to salt (47,500 *maunds*), sugar (£10,400), piece-goods (£4420). The explanation of the disproportionately low figures of importation is to be found in the circumstance, that the supplies are mainly received from Sirájganj, whence they are re-consigned after having once passed the registration station. The principal marts are—Chaorá Hát, which exported 50,000 *maunds* of jute and 22,400 of tobacco, and received 6800 of salt; Kuch Behar town, which exported 15,400 *maunds* of jute and 34,200 of tobacco, and received 8500 of salt; Balrámpur, which exported 47,300 *maunds* of jute and received 8100 of salt.

A small but effective Public Works Department has been instituted within the last few years. In 1874, there were about 115 miles of unmetalled roads in the State, with numerous good wooden bridges; and 'thousands of carts are now found where only tens and scores used to be seen.' The system of roads is mainly designed to bring all parts of the country into easy communication with the Tístá and the

Brahmaputra, the two water highways of this region. The total cost of maintenance is about £800 per annum.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the net revenue of Kuch Behar State amounted to £112,093, towards which the land tax contributed £40,896, and the *zamíndárís* in British territory £25,719; the net expenditure is returned at £120,279, including £13,903 for household expenses, £10,430 for public works, and an aggregate of £58,722 for 'land revenue' and *zamíndárí*. Since a British Commissioner took charge of the administration in 1864, the total surplus revenue up to 1874 had amounted to £150,000, most of which is invested in public securities. The new Settlement, now coming into operation, is expected to raise the land revenue from £30,000 in 1863 to nearly £90,000 in 1878. In 1870, there were 5 criminal and 10 revenue and civil courts open. For police purposes, the State is divided into 6 *thánás* or police circles. In 1874, the regular police force numbered 220 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £3070. These figures show 1 man to every 8·57 square miles of the area, or to every 2040 persons in the population; and an average cost of £2, 7s. 6d. per square mile, and 1¼d. per head of population. There is no village watch in the State. In the same year, 2674 criminal cases were instituted, in which 2614 persons were brought to trial, of whom 1748, or 66 per cent., were convicted, showing 1 person convicted of an offence to every 304 of the population. Out of property to the value of £770 reported to be stolen, £209, or 27 per cent., was recovered. There is one jail at Kuch Behar town. In 1874, the aggregate number of prisoners was 1324, of whom 34 were females; the average cost per head was £4, 13s. 4d., and the net profit from jail manufactures amounted to £478.

Education has extended rapidly during recent years. In 1874, there were 245 schools, attended by 6495 pupils, showing 1 school to every 5·3 square miles, and 1 pupil to every 82 of the population. The high school, with 176 students, has won many scholarships in the colleges of Bengal. The artisan school, or technical institution for the lower classes, is attended by 39 pupils. There is a good library of English literature in Kuch Behar town, and also a State printing-press.

The State is divided into three administrative Subdivisions, each of which is under the charge of a native officer, styled *náib áhilkár*, whose powers are analogous to those exercised by a deputy collector and deputy magistrate in British Districts. The number of police circles is 6. In 1875, there were 2 civil judges and 1 stipendiary magistrate. There is no municipality in the State.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Kuch Behar is damp and malarious, but not so hot as in other parts of Bengal. The wind sets much from the east, and thunderstorms are common from March to May.

The rainy season lasts from April to October. Fogs are common during the cold weather in the early mornings. The average annual rainfall is returned at 123 inches. During the year 1874, the highest temperature recorded at 10 A.M. was 92·5° F., in the month of June; the lowest at 4 P.M. was 49·1°, in January.

The chief diseases are malarious fevers, dysentery, diarrhœa, splenitis, and goitre. Cholera appears to be endemic to the country, and occasionally breaks out with great epidemic violence. Small-pox is now disappearing before the introduction of vaccination. In 1870, the total number of patients treated at the charitable dispensary was 5973, the proportion of deaths to patients treated being 31 per thousand.

Kuch Behar.—Capital of the above State and residence of the Rájá; situated on the Torshá river. Lat. 26° 19′ 36″ N., long. 89° 28′ 53″ E. The town contains a population variously estimated at 7132 and 10,000. The Census of 1872 returned the number of adult males as follows:—Hindus, 2480; Muhammadans, 951; Christians, 5; 'others,' 7; total, 3433. The town consists of a congeries of mat huts surrounding the brick mansion which forms the residence of the Rájá. The trade is not large, and the few Márwárí merchants who have their small brick houses in the *bázár* confine their dealings for the most part to export traffic. The two small streams, both called Torshá, which encircle the town on three sides, are only navigable during the rainy season. For the rest of the year, the sole means of communication is by land. The main line of road from Rangpur to Jalpáigurí passes through the town. There are but few public buildings worthy of note. Among the best are the State record rooms, printing office, public library, and charitable dispensary, which institutions have only recently been set on foot. It is intended to erect a more suitable residence for the Rájá; and also to build good law courts, and to provide better accommodation for the State schools, which are at present housed in common mat huts.

Kuchla Bijná.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; situated on the right bank of the Rámganga river, 4 miles above its confluence with the Ganges. Pop. (1869), 2104, chiefly Raikwárs, who obtained the village by conquest from the Thatheras.

Kúchmalái.—Hill in Palghát *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 10° 33′ N., long. 76° 55′ E.; about 4000 feet above sea level. A well-defined, pinnacle-shaped peak, terminating the Kálengod range. Contains some splendid teak. Inhabited by the hill tribe of Kurders.

Kudalúr.—*Táluk* and town in South Arcot District, Madras.—*See* CUDDALORE.

Kudalúr.—Pass in Travancore State, Madras.—*See* GUDALUR.

Kudarimukh.—Mountain in the Western Gháts, Bombay.—*See* KUDUREMUKHA.

Kudarkot.—Village and ruins in Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 2567. Lies on the Etáwah and Kanauj road, 24 miles north-east of the former town. Probably a place of great importance in the days of the Gupta kings. Tradition asserts that an underground passage connected Kudarkot with Kanauj. The houses of the modern village are built of bricks dug out of the ancient mound. Miyán Almás Alí Khán, minister of Nawáb Asaf-ud-daulá, held court at Kudarkot, and built a fort with 16 bastions on the site of the prehistoric stronghold. Disused after the British occupation, it now serves in part for the vats and factory of an indigo planter; in part as a police station and village school. An inscription of the 11th century has been found among the ruins.

Kuddana.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. The chief is Thákur Parvat Sinhjí, born about 1822. The area of the State is 130 square miles. The revenue in 1875 was estimated at £1000. The State pays no tribute.

Kuduremukha (literally, '*Horse-mouth*').—Peak of the Western Gháts, on the boundary between Kádúr District, Mysore State, and the Madras District of South Kanara. Lat. 13° 8′ N., long. 75° 20′ E.; 6215 feet above sea level. The name is derived from its appearance as a conspicuous landmark to sailors. It can be ascended from the west by a bridle-path; and on the summit a bungalow has been erected as a summer retreat for the Malabar officials.

Kuhan.—River in the Punjáb.—*See* KAHAN.

Kuhlur.—State in the Punjáb.—*See* KAHLUR.

Kukdel.—Town in the Sháháda Subdivision of Khandesh District, Bombay. Inclusive of the town of Sháháda, Kukdel contains a population (1872) of 5212 persons.

Kúki.—Range of hills in Assam.—*See* LUSHAI HILLS.

Kúk-ko.—Revenue circle in Mye-bún township, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma; lies on the shores of Combermere Bay, and consists of a small group of islands separated by tidal creeks. Area, 21 square miles; pop. (1876), 2006; gross revenue, £453.

Kukra Mailáni.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh; lying between the Kathna river on the west and the Ul on the east; bounded on the north by Bhúr, and on the south by Haidarábád *parganás*. A jungle tract, containing three large clearings—one to the south, Saukhia Sansárpur; one to the north-east, Kukra; and a third to the extreme north-west, Mailáni. Most of the forest or upland area, amounting to 126 square miles, was made over to grantees under the lease rules, but they all failed to comply with the conditions of their grants, which have been resumed and transferred to the Oudh Forest Department. The revenue-paying tract, 51 square miles, consists mainly

of the basins of three or four ancient lakes, into which the high lands drained. The aspect of these mere pits in the surface of the forest is very peculiar. The largest (Kukra) may be taken as type of all: a flat plain about 7 seven miles long and 4 broad, covered with rice-fields and prairies of long coarse grass, through which breast-high the foot-passenger moves with difficulty in pursuit of the game which lies concealed in herds. A few mango groves adjoin the mud-walled villages; here and there a slight depression allows the rain-water to gather in stagnant marshes; all round the horizon the traveller sees the high bluffs—once the shores of this inland sea—rising crowned with a ring of lofty and dense *sál* forest. This wall of verdure is only broken at places where it has been levelled to make room for the roads which pass through the plain, piercing the forest towards Gola and Bhira. Rice is the principal crop in these clearings, but barley and gram have been sown largely of late years. The want of means of carriage alone prevents a large trade springing up in timber. Pop. (1869), 12,236, of whom 2005 are Musalmáns, principally Patháns. The proprietary body was formerly Ahban, but many of them have now lost all their possessions. Ahban Musalmáns, however, still hold 19 of the 40 townships comprising the *parganá*, 13 being held by Kshattriyas.

Kuláchi.—Western *tahsíl* of Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjáb; consisting of the wild country immediately below the independent Suláimán Mountains, stretching in its extreme southern portion to the west bank of the Indus. Lat. 30° 57′ 30″ to 32° 16′ N., and long. 70° 14′ to 70° 45′ E.; area, 1407 square miles; pop. (1868), 69,134, or 49·13 to the square mile; number of villages, 104.

Kuláchi.—Municipal town in Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjáb, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Pop. (1868), 9921, consisting of 2412 Hindus, 7334 Muhammadans, 114 Síkhs, 3 Christians, and 58 'others.' Situated in lat. 31° 55′ 38″ N., long. 70° 30′ 19″ E., on the left bank of the Luní, 37 miles north-west of Derá Ismáil Khán, and 24 miles south of Tank. Rather an aggregation of 16 separate hamlets standing at the point of union in their lands, than a regular town. Surrounded by a low mud wall; scattered houses, 30 mosques, 5 *dharmsálas*. Formerly carried on a good trade with the Wazíris of the hills, which declined before annexation, but has since somewhat revived. Transit trade to Ghwalári Pass. *Tahsíli*, police station, dispensary, school, travellers' bungalow. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £594, or 1s. 6⅛d. per head of population (7856) within municipal limits.

Kú-la-dan.—A river of Arakan in British Burma. Supposed to rise in the neighbourhood of the Blue Mountain, a peak in the Yoma range. After a course generally north and south, it falls into the Bay of Bengal at Akyab town, where it is called by Europeans the 'Arakan river,' but by the inhabitants of the country 'Ga-tsha-bha.' Before the

Kú-la-dan leaves the hills, it is fed by numerous streams, the two largest being the Mí from the east and the Pí from the west; its banks are inhabited by hillmen. It is navigable by vessels of from 300 to 400 tons burden for nearly 50 miles. Its mouth forms a large harbour with good holding ground, protected from the south-west monsoon by the Borongo islands, on one of which, called Savage Island, stands a lighthouse, erected in 1842. The entrance is dangerous and difficult at low tide, there being then a depth of barely 3½ fathoms, necessarily much reduced when a rolling swell sets in.

Kú-la-dan.—A township in the north of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. It adjoins the Hill Tracts, and is divided into 8 revenue circles. Except to the south, the country is hilly, forest-clad, and but little cultivated. It contains no large villages. The headquarters of the township are on the right bank of the Kú-la-dan river, near the Mahá-múní temple. Total pop. (1876), 15,406; gross revenue, £6840.

Kulaghát.—Village in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Dharla river. An important trading mart; principal articles of export—jute, tobacco, and ginger.

Kú-la-pan-zeng. — Revenue circle in Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 12,648; gross revenue, £1980.

Kulase Kharapatam.—Town and seaport in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 9° 4′ 40″ N., long. 77° 31′ 20 E.; pop. (1871), 6566. One of the trade centres of the District.

Kulik.—River of Dinájpur District, Bengal. The principal tributary of the NAGAR. It takes its rise in a marsh in the police circle (*thánà*) of Thákurgáon, and, after running for 36 miles through the *thánás* of Ránísankáil, Pírganj, and Hemtábád, falls into the Nágar in lat. 25° 34′ N. and long. 88° 5′ E., at Goráhár village, near the point where the latter river joins the Mahánandá. The important grain mart of RAIGANJ is situated on the Kulik.

Kulitalái.—Town in Kulitalái *táluk*, Trichinopoli District, Madras. Lat. 10° 56′ N., long. 78° 27′ E.; situated on the banks of the Káveri (Cauvery). Pop. (1871), 1398; number of houses, 317; including the surburbs, the number of inhabitants would be raised to 7071. Headquarters of the *táluk*, and railway station.

Kullu.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Kángra District, Punjab. Lat. 31″ 20′ to 33° N., and long. 76° 49′ to 78° 35′ E.; comprises the three Subdivisions of KULLU, LAHUL, and SPITI, each of which see separately. The Assistant Commissioner has his headquarters at NAGAR on the Beas (Biás). The subordinate officials include—the *tahsíldár* of Kullu, whose headquarters are at Sultánpur; the *náib tahsíldár* of Seoráj, whose headquarters are at Plách; the *negi*, or head-man of Láhúl; and the *nono* of Spiti.

Kullu.—A valley and Subdivision of Kángra District, Punjab (Panjáb), lying between 31° 20′ and 32° 26′ N. lat., and between 76° 58′ 30″ and 77° 49′ 45″ E. long.; with an area of 1926 square miles, and a population in 1868 of 90,313 persons. Bounded on the north-east and east by the Central Himálayan range, dividing it from Láhúl and Spiti; on the south by the river Sutlej (Satlaj); on the south-west by the Dháoladhar or Outer Himálaya, the river Beas (Biás), and the Native States of Suket and Mandi; and on the west by the Bára Bangahál Hills, which separate Kullu from the Bangahál valley.

Physical Aspects.—The river Sainj, which rises in the Mid-Himálayan range, joining the Beas (Biás) at Lárgi, divides the tract into two portions, Kullu Proper and Sioráj. The latter division, lying between the Sainj and the Sutlej (Satlaj), is again separated into Outer and Inner Seoráj by the Jalorior Suket range. Kullu Proper, to the north of the Sainj, together with Inner Seoráj, forms a great basin or depression in the midst of the Himálayan systems, having the narrow gorge of the Beas at Sárgi as the only outlet for its waters. North and east, the Bára Bangahál and Mid-Himálayan ranges rise to a mean elevation of 18,000 feet; while southward, the Jalori and Dháoladhar ridges attain the height of 11,000 feet. Within the basin thus defined, short but lofty buttresses of rock encroach upon the central area, leaving only a few rare patches of cultivable land between their barren and snow-clad summits. The greater portion must consequently ever remain an utter wilderness. The higher villages stand 9000 feet above the sea; and even the cultivated tracts have probably an average elevation of 5000 feet. The houses consist of four-storeyed *châlets* in little groups, huddled closely together on the ledges or slopes of the valleys; picturesquely built with projecting eaves, and carved wooden verandahs. The Beas, which, with its tributaries, drains the entire basin, rises at the crest of the Rohtang Pass, 13,326 feet above the sea, and has an average fall of 125 feet per mile. Its course presents a succession of magnificent scenery, including cataracts, gorges, precipitous cliffs, and mountains clad with forests of *deodár*, towering above the tiers of pine on the lower rocky ledges. Great mineral wealth exists, undeveloped as yet, among the isolated glens, but the difficulty of transport and labour will probably always prevent its proper development. Hot springs occur at three localities, much resorted to as places of pilgrimage.

History.—The little principality of Kullu formed one of the eleven original Rájput States between the Rávi and the Sutlej, and probably belonged to some of the minor Katoch dynasties, offshoots from the great kingdom of JALANDHAR (Jullundur). Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, visited it in the 7th century; and local legends preserve the names of 87 princes who ruled successively in this remote mountain valley. Authentic history, however, first

recognises Kullu in the 15th century, when one Rájá Sudh Sinh became apparently the founder of a new dynasty. His descendants occupied the throne till the beginning of the present century, their annals being wholly confined to the usual Indian record of court intrigues, assassinations, and dynastic quarrels. When the Gúrkhás broke out from their home in Nepál, and conquered all the country up to the banks of the Sutlej, they found one Bikráma Sinh upon the throne of Kullu. Like the other neighbouring chieftains, Bikráma Sinh paid tribute to the invaders for his cis-Sutlej territory, as well as to Sansár Chánd, the Katoch prince of KANGRA for Kullu itself. In 1809, however, Ranjít Sinh, called in by Sansár Chánd, made himself master of the hills, and obtained tribute from the young Rájá of Kullu, Ajít Sinh, an illegitimate son of Bikráma Sinh. Three years later, the Síkhs demanded an annual payment of £5000; and on the Rájá's refusal, marched upon his capital of Sultánpur and sacked his palace. Ajít Sinh at length bribed the Síkhs to withdraw, by paying them all the money he could collect. After the expulsion of the Gúrkhás, the Rájá became a feudatory of the British for the cis-Sutlej tract. In 1839, General Ventura led a Síkh force against the neighbouring State of Mandi; after conquering which, one of his lieutenants attacked Kullu, on the pretext of hostile dispositions. The Rájá made no resistance, and allowed himself to be taken prisoner; but the brutal discourtesy shown him by his captors roused the hereditary loyalty of the hillmen. A secret muster took place; and as the invaders marched out of Seoráj by the Basleo Pass, the hillmen fell upon them in a narrow ravine, rescued their prince, and massacred the Síkhs almost to a man. Ajít Sinh retired across the Sutlej to his fief of Shángri, which he held from the British Government since the expulsion of the Gúrkhás; and so placed himself beyond reach of vengeance from Lahore. A Síkh army soon after marched into Seoráj, but found it completely deserted, the inhabitants having fled into inaccessible forests on the mountain-sides. Accordingly they handed over the country in farm to the Rájá of Mandi, leaving a garrison in Kullu to enforce their supremacy. Ajít Sinh died at Shángri in 1841; and the Síkhs made over in part their portion of his former dominions to his first cousin, Thákur Sinh, while Shángri remained in the hands of another relative. In 1846, at the close of the first Síkh war, the Jalandhar (Jullundur) Doáb, with the adjoining hill States, passed into the power of the British, and Kullu, with Láhúl and Spiti, became a *tahsíl* of the new Kángra District. The authorities confirmed Thákur Sinh in his title of Rájá, and in the territories which he then possessed. On his death in 1852, his son, Gyán Sinh, of doubtful legitimacy, obtained the inferior title of Rái, with half the land, and no political powers. The resumed half has since been restored, with certain reservations in favour of Government.

Population.—The Census of 1868 returned the number of inhabitants at 90,313, spread over an area of 1926 square miles, distributed among 48 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 22,138 houses. The density of population accordingly amounted to 47 persons per square mile. The people are almost exclusively Hindus in religion, the ancient faith numbering 90,206 adherents, as against 100 Muhammadans and 7 Christians. The chief castes rank as follows in numerical order:—Kanets, 52,836; Dágís, 26,495; and Bráhmans, 6615. The two former tribes probably represent impure or degraded Rájputs. The character of the hillmen resembles that of most other mountaineers in its mixture of simplicity, independence, and superstition. Polyandry still prevails in Seoráj, but has almost died out elsewhere. It consists simply of a community of wives amongst brothers, who hold all their other goods in common, and regard their women as labourers on the farm. The temples usually occupy picturesque sites, and are dedicated rather to local deities than to the greater gods of the Hindu Pantheon. The language, though peculiar to the valley, belongs essentially to the Indian or Neo-Sanskritic family, having a basis of Urdu and Pahári, with an infusion of Thibetan vocables. The only place deserving the name of town is SULTANPUR, the former capital and modern headquarters of the *tahsíl*, situated in Kullu proper, on the right bank of the Beas, with a population in 1868 of 1100. NAGAR, also a capital of the native Rájás, possesses some interest from its fine old palace or castle, crowning an eminence, which rises above the Beas to the height of about 1000 feet.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area amounting to 799,834 acres, the settlement returns show 762,467 unoccupied, as against 37,367 in occupation. Of the latter amount, 32,884 acres are under actual cultivation, the remainder being set down as waste or grass lands. Seven-eighths of the unoccupied waste lies above the limits of possible cultivation. About 24 per cent. of the cultivated area produces two crops a year. The staple spring products include wheat, barley, poppy, tobacco, and oil-seeds; the autumn crops are maize, rice, pulses, and millets. The cultivation of tea has spread, under Government auspices, from Kángra proper into Kullu. Irrigation is effected by small canals cut from the hill streams, as much as 19 per cent. of the cultivated fields being artificially supplied with water in the greater part of Kullu Proper. The tenure of land has been largely assimilated to the ordinary Indian system, the whole artificial village, made up of separate hamlets, being held jointly responsible for the entire land revenue assessed upon it.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The surplus commodities of Kullu consist of rice, wheat, opium, tobacco, tea, and honey. The rice and

wheat go chiefly to supply the barren valley of Láhúl, though a little grain also finds its way to the plains. Traders from the Punjab towns and neighbouring hill States buy up the opium, while the tobacco is exported both into Láhúl and Spiti, and into the Simla States. Manufactures are all but unknown. Two roads leads from Kángrá to Sultánpur, and another connects the same place with Simla. Wooden bridges cross the principal rivers. The main route to Leh and Yárkand follows the right bank of the Beas, crosses the Rohtang Pass, pursues the valley of the Bhága to Bára Lácha Pass, and thence descends into Ladákh. A post office has been established at Sultánpur, with a daily mail from Pálampur. Education remains at a very low ebb, but Government schools exist at the six principal villages. Sultánpur also possesses a Government charitable dispensary.

Medical Aspects.—The average annual rainfall of the valley may be put at from 45 to 50 inches. The mean temperature for the month of August amounts to 78° F.; that of November to 55°. The climate cannot be considered favourable to health. Intermittent fevers and bowel complaints prevail in an endemic form, while epidemics of virulent contagious fever and cholera break out from time to time. Goitre and cretinism also occur, as in other confined valleys. Much of the mortality might probably be prevented by cleanliness and better sanitary arrangements; but the rank vegetation, damp soil, and hot sun will always prove prejudicial to the public health, in the opinion of the settlement officer.

Kullúr.—*Ghát* or pass in South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 13° 52′ to 13° 53′ 20″ N., and long. 74° 53′ to 74° 54′ E. One of the principal passes in the Western Gháts, connecting the plateau of Mysore and Coorg with the low plains of Kanara.

Kulpahár.—Town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Pop. (1872), 6044, consisting of 5390 Hindus and 654 Muhammadans; situated in lat. 25° 19′ 10″ N., and long. 79° 39′ 40″ E., in the southern hill country; distant from Hamírpur 60 miles south. Founded by Jagatrájá, son of the great Bundela leader, Chhatar Sál, and Rájá of Jáitpur. Each of Jagatrájá's sons built himself a mansion in the town, the ruins of which still exist. Kesri Sinh also erected the Toriya fort, whose remains still stand. Large tanks, built by the Bundela Rájás. *Tahsíli*, police station, school, *sarái*, unpretentious mosques and temples. Trade in grain, cotton, and the *al* dye. Centre of local disaffection during the Mutiny.

Kulsi.—River of Assam, formed by the junction of the Ka-khri and Um-gin in the Khási Hills. The united stream flows north into Kámrúp District, and, after a very winding course, which changes year by year, finally falls into the Brahmaputra, in lat. 26° 9′ N., and long.

91° 22′ E. In the plains it is navigable by native boats during the greater part of the year. On its banks in Kámrúp District are several valuable forests of *sál* trees, under the protection of the Forest Department. The timber depôt is at Kukurmára, at the crossing of the trunk road.

Kulsi.—Forest reserve and experimental plantation in Kámrúp District, Assam; on the right or west bank of the river of the same name, immediately north of the Bárdwár reserve. Area, 3520 acres, or 5·5 square miles. The surface soil is a sandy loam covered with vegetable mould, resting upon granitoid rock, much decomposed. There are several marshy tracts, inundated during the rains. About 2 square miles are covered with *sál* (Shorea robusta), which it is intended to preserve. The remainder is being gradually planted experimentally with teak (Tectona grandis), *sissu* (Dalbergia sissoo), *tún* (Cedrela toona), *nahor* (Mesua ferrea), *súm* (Artocarpus chaplasha); and all the land not suitable for timber-trees is to be planted with caoutchouc or india-rubber (Ficus elastica). At the close of the year 1874-75, 53 acres had been planted with teak, 20 with *sissu*, and 65 with caoutchouc.

Kulsia.—Native State, Punjab.—*See* KALSIA.

Kulu.—Valley and Subdivision in Kángra District, Punjab.—*See* KULLU.

Kulutzái.—Village in the Ladákh Division of Kashmír State, Punjab; perched upon an elevated site above the right bank of the Indus. Lat. 34° 19′ N., long. 76° 58′ E. A wooden bridge crosses the river, which is here about 25 yards in width. The population consists chiefly of Buddhists.

Kumáon.—Division and District in the North-Western Provinces.—*See* KUMAUN.

Kumár (also called *Pangásí*).—River of the Gangetic Delta, Bengal. An offshoot of the Mátábhángá, leaving the main stream near Alámdángá, and flowing a tortuous easterly and south-easterly course, first for a few miles through Nadiyá District, and afterwards through Jessor, till it forms a connection with the Garái. The head of the river is closed during summer by a bar of sand, and silting is rapidly going on in its upper reaches. In Jessor, the river deepens into a beautiful stream of clear water, navigable by large boats all the year round.

Kumár.—River in Farídpur District, Bengal; a branch of the CHANDNA, taking off from that river near Kanáipur, a few miles west of Farídpur town, and, flowing a tortuous course generally from north-west to south-east, falls into the Ariál Khán at Madáripur, in lat. 23° 10′ N., and long. 90° 15′ 45″ E. Navigable for small boats throughout the year.

Kumáradhári.—River in the territory of Coorg, which rises in

lat. 13° 50′ N., and long. 76° 52′ E., in the Subrahmanya range of the Western Gháts, and flows westwards towards the Malabar coast. Near the village of Uppinángadi it meets the Netravati river, and the combined stream, under the latter name, flows into the sea near Mangalore. In the lower part of its course it is much used for navigation; small boats can proceed even above Uppinángadi.

Kumárganj.—Village in Dinájpur District, Bengal; situated on the Atrái river. One of the principal seats of District trade.

Kumárganj.—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*thána*) in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Karátoyá river.

Kumári.—Village on the headland forming the extreme southernmost point of India.—*See* COMORIN.

Kumárkhálí (*Comercolly*).—Municipal town and headquarters of a police circle (*thána*) in Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Garái river. Lat. 23° 51′ 30″ N., long. 89° 17′ 14″ E. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 3253; Muhammadans, 1985; Christians, 13; total, 5251, viz. 2479 males and 2772 females. Municipal income (1876-77), £215; expenditure, £211; average incidence of taxation, 9¾d. per head. Station on the Eastern Bengal Railway.

Kumáun. — Division or Commissionership under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 55′ to 31° 5′ N., and long. 78° 17′ 15″ to 80° 56′ 15″ E. It comprises the two Districts of KUMAUN and GARHWAL, with a total area of 11,500 square miles, and a population (1872) of 743,602 persons.

Kumáun.—The principal District in the Division of the same name in the North-Western Provinces, including the nominal Subdivisions of Kumaun Proper, Káli Kumáun, and the Bhábhar. It lies between lat. 28° 55′ and 30° 50′ 30″ N., and between long. 78° 52′ and 80° 56′ 15″ E. Area (according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1878), 6000 square miles; population in 1872, 433,314 persons. The administrative headquarters are at ALMORA town.

Physical Aspects.—Kumáun District consists, first, of the sub-Himálayan ranges; and, secondly, of the *bhábhar* or waterless forest, averaging from 10 to 15 miles in breadth, which stretches between the mountains and the Tarái. Of the entire area of the highlands, only 500 square miles are returned as cultivated, and 100 square miles as cultivable. No country exhibits more extraordinary diversities of temperature and climate than Kumáun. The southern or *bhábhar* portion is of considerable elevation. It is distinguished by a total absence of running water, and is bounded on the south by a line of springs. This tract consists of the loose detritus of the lower hills, resting on a bed of hard clay. The moisture, instead of flowing off from the surface, sinks downwards to the clay beneath, over which it percolates in a

southern direction, and eventually comes to light in the Tarái. The rivers descending from the lower hills, in the same manner lose a considerable portion of their volume on entering the *bhábhar;* and in many instances, during the hot and cold seasons, their beds are perfectly dry for the space of 9 or 10 miles, after which they again fill with water, and, reinforced by the numerous springs which gush out of the earth on the border of the moist country, form the characteristic feature of the Tarái. Up to 1850, the *bhábhar* was an almost impenetrable forest, given up to wild animals; but since then, the numerous clearings have attracted a large population from the hills, who cultivate the rich soil during the hot and cold seasons, returning to the hills in the rains. The *bhábhar* is, however, still for the most part unreclaimed jungle of the thickest and most luxuriant description; and what changes have taken place in the appearance of this tract by clearing and irrigation, have all been effected within the last twenty-five years, under the personal superintendence of General Ramsay, now the Commissioner of Kumáun. With the exception of these low lands, and a few similar tracts of small extent stretching along the great rivers in the lower parts of their courses, Kumáun is a maze of mountains, some of which are among the loftiest known. The ranges run, as a rule, from east to west in groups, connected and intersected by other ridges varying much in elevation, and gradually increasing in height as they approach the north and north-east frontier, which divides the drainage system of the Indus and Sutlej from that of the Ganges. The crest of the Níti Pass is 16,570 feet above the sea; the Máná Pass, 18,000 feet; the Juhár or Milam Pass, 17,270 feet. To the west, on the boundary of Garhwál, is the Trisúl Mountain, so called from its peaks having the appearance of a trident, the most easterly of which attains an elevation of 22,342 feet, the middle peak 23,092 feet, and the western peak 23,382 feet. To the north-east of Trísúl is Nandá Deví, with an elevation of 25,661 feet; and Nandakot, the *katiya* or couch of the great goddess Nandá, with a height of 22,538 feet. Farther east are the two highest of the Panchchúla peaks, 22,673 and 21,114 feet respectively. In fact, in a tract not more than 140 miles in length and 40 miles in breadth, there are over 30 peaks rising to elevations exceeding 18,000 feet. South of the thirtieth parallel of latitude no peaks attain the limit of perpetual snow, and few exceed 10,000 feet.

The rivers chiefly take their rise in the southern slope of the Thibetan watershed to the north of the loftiest peaks, amongst which they make their way down valleys of rapid declivity and extraordinary depth. Enumerated from east to west, the principal rivers are —the Káli, known as the Sárda where it debouches on the plains, and as the GOGRA (Ghágra) farther south to its junction with the Ganges on

the borders of Bengal; and its affluents the eastern Dhauli, Gúnka, Goriganga, eastern Rámganga, and Sarju; next come the Pindar and Káilganga, whose waters join the Alaknanda. Inferior to these, but connected with them, are the drainage lines of the southern and less elevated tablelands. Of such the principal are the Ladhiya, Baliya Bhakra, Bhaur, Kosi, and western Rámganga, which last takes its rise in Garhwál District; but ultimately all reach the Ganges. It is only by the beds of these rivers that access is afforded to the Province from the plains on the south and Hundes on the north.

There are several lakes in the Chhakháta *parganá*, the overflow of which is used for providing the small canals of the *bhábhar* with water during the cold and hot seasons. In the Himálayan ranges, also, are several unimportant natural reservoirs resembling lakes. The principal lakes are—the Náini Tál, 4703 feet long by 1518 feet broad, with a maximum depth of 93 feet, and circumference of 2¼ miles; Bhím Tál, 5580 feet long by 1490 broad, with a maximum depth of 87 feet; Naukuchiya, 3120 feet long by 2270 broad, with a maximum depth of 132 feet; Málwá Tál, 4480 feet long by 1833 broad, with a maximum depth of 127 feet. Although the successive steep ridges of Kumáun are only separated by narrow ravines instead of by true valleys, yet, as compared with Garhwál and other cis-Sutlej western Districts, it can boast of some extensive river plateaux and level uplands, which give a peculiar character to its scenery. Of the former, Sumeswár and Hawalbágh on the Kosi, the Katyúr valley on the Gaomati, and the whole centre tract of Pálí watered by the Gagás and western Rámganga are remarkable examples; of the latter, may be mentioned Chárál in Káli Kumáun, and the neighbourhood of Lohághát and Pithorágarh. The valuable timber of the yet uncleared forest tracts in Kumáun is now under official supervision. The chief trees are the *chír* or three-leaved Himálayan pine, the cypress, fir, alder, *sál* or iron-wood, and *saindan*. *Sál*, the most valuable of all, grows abundantly in the valleys, stretching down to the plains, and is strictly preserved by the Forest Department.

The fauna and flora of Kumáun District are very varied, but can only be described here shortly. The wild animals include the leopard, hyæna, black and brown bear, jackal, monkey, fox, deer of several species, chamois, *yák*. Elephants are found in the *bhábhar*, and in the forests bordering on the Siwálik Hills. They are now protected by order of Government, and are captured, when required, by means of *khedas*. Tigers are becoming scarcer every year. Venomous snakes are numerous. The *múra* fly is very troublesome in the months of April and May. Limestone, sandstone, slate, gneiss, and granite constitute the principal geological formations of the District. Mines of iron, copper, gypsum, lead, asbestos, and coral exist; but they are not

thoroughly worked, and often their inaccessible position, combined with the absence of coal, renders any profitable out-turn impossible.

History.—Of the early history of Kumáun very little is known. The few facts on record tend to show that at a remote period these mountains were the recognised home of the hero-gods of India, and an object of veneration to all Hindus. In the travels of the Chinese pilgrim Hiouen Thsang in the 7th century, the kingdom of Govisana, now identified with Kásipur in the Kumáun *tarái*, is mentioned as adjacent to Brahmaputra within the hill territory, a seat of civilised government. The earliest dynasty known to tradition is that of Katyúra Deos, eventually supplanted by the Chánd Rájás, the former reigning at Baijnáth in the Katyúr valley, at which place, and also at Dwára Hát, architectural remains are still extant. The Chánd Rájás, of whom the first, Som Chánd, is said to have come from Jhusi, near Allahábád, probably in the 10th century of our era, had their established seat of Government at Champháwat in Káli Kumáun.

In 1563 A.D., the Chánds having obtained full authority over all the petty chiefs, including the last descendant of the Kutyúras, the capital was transferred to Almora by Rájá Kalyán Chánd. His son Rúdra Chánd was a contemporary of Akbar, and made his obeisance to that emperor at Lahore in 1587. The Muhammadan rulers never obtained a fixed footing in the hills; but in 1744 A.D., Alí Muhammad Khán sent a force to invade Kumáun. The resistance of the Chánd Rájá was weak and ineffectual. The Rohillás captured and plundered Almora. Though their stay in Kumáun was short, its results to the Province are bitterly remembered; and its mischievous, though zealously religious, character is still attested by the mutilated sculptures of some of the Kumáun temples. The Rohillás remained in the hills for seven months, when, disgusted with the climate and the hardships that they were forced to suffer, they accepted a bribe of 3 *lákhs* of rupees (or £30,000), and returned to the plains. But Alí Muhammad Khán was not satisfied with the conduct of his lieutenants; and three months after their retreat, at the commencement of 1745, the Rohillás returned. They were defeated at the very entrance of the hills near Bárakheri, and made no further attempt on Kumáun. These were the first and last Muhammadan invasions of these hills. The Delhi Emperors never exercised any direct authority in Kumáun, although it was necessary for the Rájá to admit their nominal supremacy for the sake of his possessions in the plains. These events were followed by disturbances and revolutions in Kumáun itself; and within the next thirty years the hill Rájás lost all the country which they had held in the plains, except the tract known as the *bhábhar*. In the middle of the 18th century, the Gúrkha tribe, under their chief Prithwi Náráyan, had made themselves

masters of the most important part of the present kingdom of Nepál. His successors determined, in 1790, to attack Kumáun. The Gúrkha forces crossed the Káli, and advanced upon Almora through Gangoli and Kalí Kumáun. The titular Rájá of Kumáun fled to the plains, and the whole of his territory was annexed to the other conquests of the Gúrkhas. The Nepálese rule lasted twenty-four years, and was of a cruel and oppressive character. In the early part of the present century, the Gúrkhas had been making numerous raids in the British possessions lying at the foot of the Himálayas. All remonstrance was unavailing; and in December 1814, it was finally resolved to wrest Kumáun from the Gúrkhas, and annex it to the British possessions, as no legitimate claimant on the part of the Chánds was then in existence. Harakdeo Joshi, the minister of the last legitimate Rájá of Kumáun, warmly espoused the British side. At the end of January 1815, everything was ready for the attack on Kumáun. The whole force consisted of 4500 men with two 6-pounder guns.

The first successful event on the British side during this war was the capture of Almora by Colonel Nicholls, on 26th April 1815. On the same day, Chandra Bahádur Sáh, one of the principal Gúrkha chiefs, sent a flag of truce to Colonel Nicholls, requesting a suspension of hostilities, and offering to treat for the evacuation of Kumáun. Lieutenant-Colonel Gardner was deputed to hold a personal conference with Bam Sáh, the Nepálese commander at Almora; and on the following day the negotiation was brought to a close by the conclusion of a convention, under which the Gúrkhas agreed to evacuate the Province and all its fortified places. It was stipulated that they should be allowed to retire across the Káli with their military stores and private property, the British providing the necessary supplies and carriage. As a pledge for the due fulfilment of the conditions, the fort of Lálmandi (now Fort Moira) was the same day surrendered to the British troops. Captain Hearsey, who had been taken and imprisoned at Almora, was released at the same time. The Gúrkhas were escorted across the Káli by our troops, and the British took possession of Kumáun and Garhwál. The Hon. E. Gardner was the first Commissioner of Kumáun; and in August 1817, he was succeeded by his assistant, Mr. Traill. He was followed in 1835 by Colonel Gowan and Mr. S. T. Lushington, under the latter of whom Mr. J. H. Batten carried out the first regular settlement of the Province, and in 1848 succeeded Mr. Lushington as Commissioner. In 1856, Captain (now Major-General Sir Henry) Ramsay was appointed Commissioner, and still manages the affairs of Kumáun. Mr. P. Whalley, in his Report on the non-Regulation Provinces, states that the administrative history of Kumáun divides itself naturally into three periods—under Traill, under Batten, and under Ramsay. The *régime* in the first period was essentially despotic and personal, in con-

trast with the centralizing tendencies which the policy of the Government had developed. It was at the same time just and eminently progressive. Mr. Traill's incumbency terminated in 1835, and then followed an interval of uncertainty. Traill left the Province orderly, prosperous, and comparatively civilised; but his machinery was not easily worked by another hand. There was no law, and the lawgiver had been withdrawn. The Board of Commissioners and the Government found it necessary to reassert their control, and to lay down specific rules in matters that had hitherto been left to the judgment of the Commissioner. Mr. Batten was then only Assistant Commissioner of Garhwál, but he was a man eminently qualified both by training and disposition to second the action of Government, and to assist in the inauguration of the new era. His talents had already been recognised, and from this period he was consulted in every step; and it was his influence, more than that of any single officer, which gave its stamp and character to the period (1836-56) distinguished by his name. It was marked in its earlier stage by an introduction of codes and rules and the predominance of official supervision, which gradually diminished as Mr. Batten gained influence, position, and experience. Thus the second period glided insensibly into the third, which, nevertheless, has a distinctive character of its own. In General Ramsay's administration we see the personal sway and unhampered autocracy of the first era happily blending with the orderly procedure and observance of fixed rules and principles, which formed the chief feature of the second period.

Population, etc.—The population of Kumáun comprised 425,963 Hindus and 5569 Musalmáns out of the total 433,314 persons enumerated in 1872. The Musalmáns are chiefly recent immigrants from the plains, or the descendants of the retainers of the Kumáun Rájás. The majority of the Hindus belong to the tribe of Khásias, identified by some with the inhabitants of the Khási Hills in Assam. The Khásias of Kumáun are to all intents and purposes Hindus in religion and customs, and their language is purely Hindu, as shown both by the archaic records extant and by their present dialect. There is every reason to believe that the original Khásias, or inhabitants of Khasdes, mentioned by the Hindu lawgiver Manu, some 2500 years ago, were Hindus, and identical with the modern tribe of Khásias. Successive immigrations from the plains imposed upon them masters, who absorbed all power, and introduced observances characteristic of the Bráhman and Kshattriya castes. The Doms, corresponding to the Chamárs of the plains, rank as the lowest of the Khásias, and until the British occupation they were the predial slaves of the landholders. It is by no means proved that these Doms are the descendants of any non-Aryan aboriginal race. They share

with their Khásia countrymen the superstitious belief in demons and sprites common to all mountaineers. Every crag and summit has its local deity and shrine, at which kids are offered in sacrifice; at the larger temples at river junctions, buffaloes are similarly slaughtered. Most of the great tribes of Northern India have their representatives amongst the hill communities, and among the Bráhmans the tribe of astrologers, known as *jyotishes* or *joshis*, have attained the greatest influence. The Bhotiyas (from Bhot, the corrupt form of *Bod* or Thibet) inhabit the country lying north of the great peaks. The Bhotiyas are distinctly of Thibetan origin, but they are little inclined themselves to admit this fact. In the Juhár valley especially, they have adopted the language and customs of their Hindu neighbours; though, if report be true, when once across the border they do as the Thibetans do, and are good Buddhists. The features and dialect of the Bhotiyas resemble closely those of the people of Thibet. The Kumáunis themselves are a tolerably fair, good-looking race; and, except in the extreme northern *parganás*, any difference of feature may be attributed to climatic influences rather than to any extensive intermixture of Tartar blood. On the whole, the character of the people is estimable and pleasing. The men are active, cheerful, honest, and industrious. The women in their youth are generally pretty. The obnoxious custom of polyandry is here unknown, but polygamy is frequent. The 4606 villages of the District are scattered about the hillsides, the houses being built of stone laid in mud, and roofed with slates, or with planks or thatch. The better class of dwellings are ornamented with wooden carvings, principally of *tún*-wood (Cedrela toona). The only native town is ALMORA. Champhawát, the ruined capital of the Chánds, ranks only as a village, though it boasts of a *tahsíli* in the old fort. There are large *bázárs* at the European stations of NAINI TAL and RANIKHET. Milam, the principal residence of the Juhár Bhotiyas, is a large, well-built village, but is uninhabitable between November and May. Of the *mandis* or market gatherings in the *bhábhar*, Rámnagar on the Kosi is the most considerable.

Agriculture.—The agriculture of the *bhábhar* is being assimilated so rapidly to that of the plains, that a separate notice of it is hardly required. Wheat and mustard form a large proportion of the *rabí* or spring crops, and the irrigation absolutely necessary for all cultivation in that tract, is supplied by a well-organized system of small canals. The area available for cultivation is small in Kumáun. In order to remedy this deficiency, the sides of hills, wherever possible, have been cut down into terraces, rising above each other in regular succession, and having their fronts supported by stone abutments. The soil, except in some of the valleys, is often poor and stony, and requires much manure. In certain localities, periodical cultivation with the hoe only is carried on.

On the better kinds of land, rice, wheat, and tobacco are grown; on the others, according to the season, wheat, barley, mustard, vetch, flax, Indian corn, millets, pulses, sugar-cane, cotton, oil-seeds, etc. The staple food of the peasantry is the millet called *mandua* (Eleusine corocana), the *ragí* of the Deccan. The cucumber family is largely used; and in the southernmost *parganás*, ginger, turmeric, and capsicums are profitable crops. Potatoes are becoming common in some localities, but are not so plentifully grown as in the Simla Hills. Fruit is very plentiful in Kumáun. The oranges grown here are of excellent quality. The tea plantations form now an important and valuable feature in the District, but are almost entirely in the hands of European owners. In 1876-77, the number of gardens was 19, covering an area of 2222 acres. The total yield of tea in that year was 261,060 lbs. The recent opening up of the Central Asian market through Afghán traders, who come to the plantations in person, has given a fresh impetus to this industry, which had begun to decline.

Property in Kumáun, both in theory and practice, has ever been vested in the State. The occupant landholders possess a hereditary and transferable property in the soil, but their rights were never indefeasible, and have always been revocable at the hands of the sovereign. The proprietary right is in a state of extreme subdivision, each hamlet or village being shared commonly amongst many petty proprietors. Where the proprietary and occupancy rights are vested in the same individual, the cultivating tenants under him possess no rights in the soil, and are mere tenants-at-will. Fully three-fifths of the arable land in Kumáun are cultivated by the proprietors themselves. Proprietors simply pay their share of the Government demand; while old occupancy tenants (*khayakárs*) are subject to an additional money payment, in commutation of certain dues and fees formerly demanded. In native times, Bráhmans and other principal grantees cultivated their lands by means of *hályas* or domestic slaves. In the tea plantations, the planters hold their estates in what would be elsewhere called pure *zamíndárí* right, including that portion of the adjacent forest and waste, within fixed boundaries, to which Government has given up its claim. A very few instances of such tenure also exist among the principal natives of the Province. The head-man of every village is called the *pradhán*, whose office is often hereditary, but essentially elective. In large estates each clan has its own representative head-man. The Government revenue is collected by and paid through the *pradháns*, who are remunerated by rent-free lands and certain fees and privileges. They are the local police officers in each village for reporting offences, etc. The higher class of hereditary head-men are called *síjánas*, *kamíns*, and *thokdárs*.

Natural Calamities.—No universal famine has taken place in Kumáun since the British gained possession of the District. The worst calamities

of this kind were in 1838 and 1867. Disastrous floods are unknown, but sometimes, as in 1840, the valley lands suffer from sudden freshets, which cover the soil with barren gravel. Heavy rains, too, wash away field terrace-walls, and houses and lands are occasionally injured by landslips. In the Bhot *mahál*s, avalanches are always threatening the safety of villages and of travellers, and laden cattle and sheep are sometimes overwhelmed in the passes; but no great disaster has yet occurred requiring special notice. On an average of five years, 58 persons have perished yearly in Kumáun from the attacks of wild animals and snake-bites; while the record of a single year shows the destruction of 45 tigers, 124 leopards, and 240 bears, at a cost of £146 in Government rewards.

Manufactures, Commerce, etc.—If we except tea prepared on the several gardens, there are no manufactures of any note. The people of the northern tracts, who use woollen clothing, weave a coarse kind of serge. The trade of Kumáun may be described under two heads—first, that in the hands of the Bhotiyas with Thibet; and, secondly, that with the plains. The Thibet trade is almost a complete monopoly in the hands of its carriers. The imports are ponies, *yáks*, jabus, sheep, and other beasts of burden, salt, borax, gold, wool, drugs, precious stones, cow-tails, coarse woollen cloths, and Chinese silks. The exports are grain, cotton goods, broadcloth, quilts, hardware, tobacco, sugar, spices, dyes, tea, and wood for house-building. In the year 1876-77, imports *viâ* Juhár amounted to £12,600, exports to £4100; imports *viâ* Dárma and Byáus were valued at £8500, and exports at £5500 in value. Kumáun sends to the plains grain of sorts, clarified butter, tea, ginger, turmeric, red pepper, hill drugs and spices, bark for tanning, pine-tar, honey and wax, and a little iron and copper, besides the timber and wild jungle produce of the *bhábhar*. Its imports comprise every article of necessity or luxury, both for Europeans and natives, which the hills themselves do not furnish. Trade has of late much improved, owing to the increase of markets and the improvement in communications. The roads in the hills are for the most part only bridle-paths, more or less well laid out, but all now well bridged, English iron suspension bridges having superseded the old native rope *jhulas* over the larger rivers. Cart-roads run from Haldwáni to Náini Tál, and from Rámnagar to Ránikhet and Almora, the latter penetrating into the very heart of the Province. Among the resources of Kumáun, which may be further developed, are the mineral and metallic products. At Dechauri in the *bhábhar*, experiments are being carried on with a view to the profitable working of the tertiary iron ores, in the vicinity of forest fuel.

Administration.—The public revenue under the native rulers was derived from a variety of sources besides land produce, most of which

were given up at the conquest by the British. Traill's land assessments were for short periods; Batten's Settlement in 1846 was for twenty years; Beckett's existing Settlement is for thirty years, and is the first based on a regular survey. Though it has produced a large increase of the Government demand, its incidence on the land is light, the average rate being Rs. 1. 3. 11, or about 2s. 5½d., per cultivated *bisi* or local acre, and Rs. 0. 13. 10 per *bisi* on total cultivated and cultivable area. For the collection of the revenue, as well as for general duty, 2 *tahsíldárs* are stationed at Almora and Champawát. They are assisted by local *patwáris*, a peculiar class of mixed fiscal and judicial petty officers, each of whom has charge of one or more *pattis*, paid chiefly from a cess of 4 per cent. on the land revenue. Besides this cess, there is a District *dák* or post-office cess of 3 per cent. in lieu of personal service, and a school cess to provide vernacular education. A small tax of from 1 to 3 rupees (2s. to 6s.) is levied on village water-mills for grinding corn. There are police stations at Almora, Náini Tál, Ráníkhet, Champawát, Thor, and Páli within the hills, and at Rámnagar, Káladhúngo, Haldwáni, and Barmdeo in the *bhábhar*, where protection is required at the *mandis* or marts. There is a jail at Almora, but crime in Kumáun is, generally speaking, light. In 1876, there were 6 cases of murder—1 of robbery, 4 of burglary, and 97 of common theft.

The Civil Courts, presided over by the European staff and 2 native subordinate judges, have a simple procedure, resembling that of our county courts, and deal with a rather excessive amount of petty litigation, chiefly connected with land. The language used is Hindí, written in the Nágari character, and well known to the suitors.

Climate, etc.—With the exception of the *bhábhar* and deep valleys, Kumáun on the whole enjoys a mild climate. Even at heights from 5000 feet upwards, supposed to possess a European climate, the periodical rains and atmospheric conditions preceding and following them, throw the whole southern slope of the great Himálayan chain for almost half the year into the sub-tropical rather than the temperate region. The seven months from October to April are delightful. The rainfall of the outer range, which is first struck by the monsoon, is double that of the central hills, in the average proportion of 80 inches to 40. No winter passes without snow on the higher ridges, and in some years its occurrence is universal throughout the mountain tract. Frosts, especially in the valleys, are often severe. The average death-rate per 1000 for the years 1869 to 1875 was estimated at 18 persons. There are numerous Government dispensaries in the District, and the American Mission has its medical establishments also. Kumáun is occasionally visited by epidemic cholera. Leprosy, affecting 4 to 5 per 1000 persons, is most prevalent in the east of the District. There is an asylum

at Almora for those suffering from this disease. Goitre and cretinism afflict a small proportion of the inhabitants, especially in the north-eastern *parganás*. The hill fevers at times exhibit the rapid and malignant features of plague. The *mahámari* pestilence, which was formerly confined to Garhwál, has of late years extended its ravages to Kumáun. The authorities are giving their anxious attention to sanitary measures, the total neglect and violation of which have produced among the Khásias fatal typhoid outbreaks. Murrains break out from time to time among the cattle.

Kumbhákamdrúg.—Mountain in North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 13° 34′ 35″ N., long. 79° 55′ 22″ E. The principal peak in the Satliawád range of hills; highest point, 2598 feet above sea level.

Kumbhakonam.—Town in Tanjore District, Madras.—*See* COMBACONUM.

Kumbhar.—Town in Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) State, Rájputána. Lat. 27° 19′ N., long. 77° 25′ E.; 11 miles north-west of Bhartpur. Thornton states that it was founded in the 18th century; unsuccessfully besieged by the Marhattás in 1754; surrendered to the British in 1826, after the capture of Bhartpur. The palace of the Rájá commands the surrounding plain, and serves as a fortress. Post office.

Kumbhárlighát.—Mountain pass over the Western Gháts, between Ratnágiri and Satára Districts, Bombay. Lat. 17° 26′ N., long. 73° 45′ E.; 123 miles south-east by south of Bombay. It is traversed by a line of road from Karád in Satára to the port of Chiplún in Ratnágiri.

Kumhársain.—One of the Hill States, under the Government of the Punjab. Lat. 31° 6′ to 31° 20′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 22′ to 77° 35′ E. The village of Kumhársain is situated in lat. 31° 19′ N., and long. 77° 30′ E., about 40 miles east of Simla. This State, formerly a feudatory of Bashahr, was declared independent after the expulsion of the Gúrkhas in 1815. The *sanad*, dated 7th February 1816, binds the chief and his heirs to render feudal service to the British Government. The Ráná of Kumhársain, Hirá Sinh, is a Rájput, born about 1850. The area of the State is 90 square miles; its population was estimated in 1875 at 10,000, and the revenue at £1000. The State pays a tribute to the British Government of £200.

Kumhráwan.—*Parganá* in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Haidarábád *parganá* of Bára Bánki, on the east by *tahsíl* Mohánlálganj of Lucknow, on the south by *parganá* Hardoi, and on the west by Rokha Jais. Watered by the river Náiya. Area, 70 square miles; pop. (1869), 44,619, of whom 13,941 are Hindus, chiefly Amethia Kshattriyas and Kurmís. Government land revenue, £11,690; average incidence per acre, 5s. 2⅞d. The chief proprietary body are Amethia Kshattriyas, a branch of the Chamár Gaurs, said to be the descendants of a Gaur widow, who, at the extirpation of

the Kshattriyas by the Bráhmans, found an asylum in a Chamár's hut. The memory of this humble refuge is still kept alive by the worship of the *rápi* or cobbler's cutting tool. Great numbers of the Chamár Gaurs now hold villages in Hardoi District, and it is probable that the Amethias were an offshoot of the same immigration. Tradition discovers them first at Shiupuri and afterwards at the celebrated fortress of Kálinjar. Somewhere about the time of Tamerlane's invasion of Hindustán, Ráipál Sinh left Kálinjar and settled at Amethi in Lucknow, and a branch of the family subsequently obtained Kumhráwan. Of the 58 villages comprising the *parganá*, 32 are *tálukdárí*, 17 *zamíndárí*, 4 *pattidárí*, 2 *bháyáchára*, and 3 revenue free-grants.

Kumillá.—Headquarters town of Tipperah District, Bengal.—*See* COMILLA.

Kumiriá.—Village and headquarters of a police circle (*thána*) in Chittagong District, Bengal; situated near the sea-coast, on the main road from Tipperah to Chittagong. Lat. 20° 30′ 15″ N., long. 91° 45′ 40″ E.

Kumlágarh.—Fortress in Mandi State, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 48′ N., and long. 76° 43′ E., near the south bank of the Beas (Biás); consisting of a range of forts, about 3 miles in length, constructed partly of masonry and partly of the natural sandstone rock. The principal stronghold crowns an isolated peak, whose precipitous sides tower 1500 feet above the Beas, with double that elevation above sea level. Sansár Chánd, Rájá of Kángra, attacked the fortifications unsuccessfully; but General Ventura, the partisan Síkh commander, succeeded in carrying them, against the popular belief in their impregnability.

Kumpta.—Town and port, Kanara District, Bombay.—*See* COOMPTA.

Kunáwár.—Subdivision of Bashahr State, Punjab (Panjáb). Lat. 31° 16′ to 32° 3′ N., and long. 77° 33′ to 79° 2′ E.; bounded on the north by Spiti, on the east by Chinese territory, on the south by Bashahr and Garhwál, and on the west by Kullu. Estimated area, 2100 square miles; estimated population, 10,000. Consists of a rugged and elevated country, 70 miles in length by 40 in breadth, through whose lofty ridges the deeply cleft valley of the Sutlej winds its tortuous course. The rocky and precipitous banks of the central river afford little room for cultivation; but the minor valleys of its tributaries are assiduously tilled by the mountaineers. The chief streams are—the Li or river of Spiti, the Dárbang, the Píjar, the Kozháng, the Malgin, and the Yálá, which flow into the Sutlej on the right side; and the Hocho, the Tughlagkhur, the Tidang, and the Baspa, which enter from the left. The Sutlej, which forms everywhere the centre of depression, has an elevation of about 10,000 feet on the north-eastern border, falling to about 5000 feet as it passes out of Kunáwár on the south-west. The lower valley has a warm climate, rendered oppressively

hot in summer by radiation from the rocks. The monsoon reaches only the southern extremity of Kunáwár, so that the autumn rains do not extend to the upper half, which depends almost entirely for its water supply upon artificial irrigation from the hill streams. Winter is rigorous, and the snow often blocks up and isolates the higher villages for considerable periods together. Nevertheless, grapes yield an abundant vintage, being manufactured into raisin wine and strong spirit. The population consists of a mixed Thibetan and Hindu race, the Turanian element preponderating in the north, while the southern region is inhabited by persons of Aryan type. In physique, the Kunáwáris are tall, athletic, well made, and dark skinned; while their character stands high for hospitality, truthfulness, and honesty. Alone among the neighbouring hill tribes, they successfully resisted the Gúrkha invasion, and so completely baffled the enemy by breaking down bridges, that the Gúrkhas entered into a convention by which, in return for a tribute of £750 per annum, they agreed to leave the valley unmolested. Polyandry everywhere exists in its fullest form. The religion of the Kunáwár shows the same mixed origin as its ethnical peculiarities. The northern villages profess Buddhism of the Thibetan model; in the south, Hinduism prevails, while the middle region shades off gradually from one faith into the other, producing grotesque mixtures of ceremonial and belief. Bráhmans do not live beyond Saháran, near the southern frontier; at Kanum, half-way across the tract, the Thibetan sacred books are in use, and *lámas* are found, but the Hindu veneration for kine still exists, and the distinctions of caste survive; while at Hangrang, on the northern frontier, Buddhism assumes the pure Thibetan form. The language shades off, like the religion, from Thibetan in the north to neo-Sanskritic dialects on the Indian side. The chief villages in the valley are Sangnam and Kanum.

Kúnch.—South-western *tahsíl* of Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a level plain, much cut up by ravines along the Pahúj river on its western border, and irrigated by the inundation known as *pán* from the Samthar State on the south. Area, 209 square miles, of which 168 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 67,041; land revenue, £20,464; total Government revenue, £21,558; rental paid by cultivators, £36,473; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 0¾d.

Kúnch.—Municipal town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Lat. 25° 59′ 30″ N., long. 79° 11′ 55″ E.; pop. (1872), 14,448, consisting of 11,956 Hindus and 2492 Muhammadans. Stands on the open plain, distant from Urái 19 miles west, from Kálpi 42 miles south-west. Consists of a business end to the east, and quiet, straggling, country village to the west. Large tank, known as Govind Ráo's Tál, built about 1750; adorned with steps on all sides, and a cupola at each

corner. Cotton and wheat market; market for molasses, rice, and tobacco; salt market. Narrow, tortuous, unmade, undrained *bázár* ways, with poor-looking and often ruinous shops. Surface much intersected by ravines and water-courses. Declining trade and population; insufficient communications. In 1804, Colonel Fawcett, commanding British troops in Bundelkhand, sent a force to reduce a neighbouring fort. Amír Khán, then plundering Mau and Irichh, attacked them unexpectedly, and drove them back to their camp with considerable loss. The freebooting chief next plundered Kálpi and Ata; but Kúnch was saved by the remains of the British force. Shortly afterwards, the British troops under Colonel Shepherd dispersed the marauding body. During the Mutiny of 1857, the rebels under Barjor Sinh frequently occupied Kúnch. Residence of an extra-Assistant Commissioner; *tahsíli*, police station, *tahsíli* school, girls' school, Government charitable dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £805; from taxes, £679, or 11⅛d. per head of population (14,682) within municipal limits.

Kund.—Valley in Kashmír State, Punjab.—*See* KHUND.

Kúndá.—Range of mountains in Nílgiri District, Madras. Lat. 11° 9′ to 11° 21′ 40″ N., and long. 76° 27′ 50″ to 76° 46′ E. The western wall of the Nílgiri plateau, rising abruptly from Malabar. The summit of the ridge is rocky and precipitous; and the sides, covered at places with grass, slope down to the valley of the Kúndá river, which separates this range from the rest of the tableland. The two highest points are Avalanche Peak, 8502 feet, and Makúrti, 8402 feet. The ground is broken, and tea-planting is less developed than in the rest of the District. From Utákamand (Ootacamund) the view of the Kúndá range is remarkably beautiful. The Bhaváni river rises in this range, in which also is to be found nearly the only good big game shooting on the Nílgiris.

Kún-dan. — Revenue circle in the Hmaw-bhí township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Hilly towards the east. Skirting the rice plains on the west is the Meng-lan or old 'royal road.' This circle is traversed by the road from Rangoon running northwards towards Prome. Pop. (1876), 8253; land revenue, £1811, and capitation tax, £730.

Kundapur.—Town and river, South Kanara District, Madras.—*See* KANDAPUR.

Kún-daw.—Revenue circle in the Mye-dai township, Thayet-myo District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 48 square miles, of which about 42 are uncultivable. Chief products—rice, cotton, sesamum, plantains, maize, etc. Pop. (1876), 2174; gross revenue, £350.

Kundhnan Khurd.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated on the river Madha, 14 miles from Faizábád town. Pop.

(1869), 2455, viz. 2278 Hindus and 177 Musalmáns. Founded and called after a Bisen chief named Khandar Sen, about 500 years ago.

Kundla.—Town in Bhaunagar State in Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 21° 21′ N., long. 71° 25′ E.; pop. (1872), 5274.

Kundri, North.—*Parganá* of Sítápur District, Oudh; forming together with SOUTH KUNDRI the *doáb* or alluvial valley between the Chauka and Gogra. The country is a perfect network of small streams, which annually overflow their banks during the rains, causing considerable damage. Area, 165 square miles, or 105,901 acres, of which 69,047 are cultivated, 16,550 are cultivable, and 20,304 barren. Pop. (1869), 69,584, viz. 63,815 Hindus and 5769 Muhammadans. The incidence of the land revenue is at the rate of 1s. 3⅞d. per acre of total area, 1s. 8¼d. per acre of assessed area, and 2s. 1⅜d. per acre of cultivated area. The villages number 129, of which 66 are held on *tálukdárí* and 63 on *zamíndárí* tenure. Rájputs hold 92 villages, Musalmáns 26, Government 7, and Bráhmans, Káyasths, Banias, and Bháts, 1 each. In ancient times, the inhabitants were Bhars, Kurmís, and Raghubansis. Local tradition relates that about 680 years ago two Rájput brothers, Bál and Sál, came from their native town of Raiká in Jammu, and drove out the Bhars. Bál and Sál divided the country, the former taking the northern parts, and the latter the southern. The descendants of both are extant to the present day, and are known as Raikwár Kshattriyas, from the name of the original village of their ancestors. The descendants of Sál are chiefly found in Rámnagar *parganá*, Bára Bánki District; and those of Bál, in Kundri and in Bahráich. In Kundri, the chief Raikwár proprietors were the Rájá of Chahlári, who was slain in the Mutiny and his estates confiscated, the Ráo of Mallápur, and the Thákur of Rámpur.

Kundri, South.—*Parganá* of Sítápur District, Oudh; forming together with NORTH KUNDRI the *doáb* or alluvial valley between the Chauka and the Gogra, and liable to destructive inundations. Area, 66 square miles, or 42,510 acres, of which 25,226 are cultivated, 8082 cultivable, 52 *muáfi*, and 9150 waste. Pop. (1869), 29,393, viz. 27,382 Hindus and 2011 Muhammadans. The incidence of the land revenue is at the rate of 1s. 1d. per acre of total area, 1s. 4½d. per acre on assessed area, and 1s. 9d. per acre on cultivated area. The villages number 39, of which 27 are held by a Raikwár *tálukdár*.

Kunhár.—River in Hazára District, Punjab; draining the whole of the Khágan valley. Rises in lat. 34° 51′ N., and long. 74° 4′ E., at the head of the glen, and, after a course of about 100 miles, joins the Jhelum (Jhílam) at Patan, in lat. 34° 17′ N., and long. 73° 31′ E. Narrow and rocky bed; as far as Balákot, extremely tortuous. Mountains from 8000 to 16,700 feet in height hem it in on either side, the basin between them rarely exceeding 16 miles in width, and contracting

in its lower portion, where the hills subside, to 8 miles or less. Above Balákot, the torrent flows so fiercely that nothing can live in it; below that point, the stream may be crossed by swimming during the summer months, and sometimes even becomes fordable. One of the main roads to Kashmír runs through the Batrási and Dúb Passes, on the western and eastern banks respectively, and crosses the Kunhár at Garhi Habib-ullá by a suspension bridge, with a span of 108 feet, erected in 1856 at a cost of £798. Below this bridge, rough suspension bridges of rope, manufactured from twisted twigs, cross the river at long intervals.

Kunhiár.—One of the Hill States, under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab. Lat. 31° 3′ to 31° 7′ N., and long. 76° 59′ to 77° 3′ E. The area is 8 square miles, and the population in 1876 was estimated at about 2500. The Thákur of Kunhiár, Tegh Sinh, is a Rájput, born about 1834. The family has the title of Ráo, and within the last two generations has taken the suffix Sinh. The founder of the family came from Jammu, conquered and held this petty State, at a date unknown. The *sanad* of the chiefship is dated 4th September 1815, after the expulsion of the Gúrkhas. It contains the usual terms of vassalage. The revenue was estimated in 1876 at £400. The State pays a tribute of £18 to the British Government.

Kuní.—A river rising in the Yewatmál range of hills, in Wún District, Berar. After a southerly course of about 46 miles, it flows into the Pengangá, in lat. 19° 47′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 41′ 30″ E.

Kuniá-dháná.—Petty State in Bundelkhand, Central India.—*See* KHANIA-DHANA.

Kunigál.—*Táluk* in Túmkúr District, Mysore. Area, 261 square miles, of which 94 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 85,661, including 4418 Muhammadans, 33 Jains, and 44 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £7261, or 2s. 6d. per cultivated acre.

Kunigál.—Municipal town in Túmkúr District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 1′ 40″ N., long. 77° 4′ 10″ E.; 22 miles south by road from Túmkúr. Pop. (1871), 3355; municipal revenue (1874-75), £67; rate of taxation, 5d. per head. The fort is said to have been founded by a local chief in 1290. A large tank has been constructed from the junction of three hill streams. In recent years, a low type of fever has made the place very unhealthy. There is an important establishment for breeding horses for the Mysore *sillidárs*. Headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name.

Kunjah.—Municipality in Gujrát District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 31′ 45″ N., long. 74° 1′ E.; pop. (1868), 5975, consisting of 1726 Hindus, 3852 Muhammadans, 352 Síkhs, and 45 'others.' Distant from Gujrát 7

miles north-west. Agricultural and local trading centre. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £113, or 5d. per head of population (5354) within municipal limits.

Kunjpurá.—Municipal town in Karnál District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 43′ N., long. 77° 7′ 15″ E.; pop. (1868), 5163, consisting of 2000 Hindus, 2737 Muhammadans, and 426 'others.' Distant from Karnál 10 miles north-east. Residence of a distinguished Muhammadan family, whose head enjoys the revenues of the neighbourhood as *jágír*, and bears the title of Nawáb, with jurisdiction as honorary magistrate on his own estates. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £150, or 7d. per head of population (5048) within municipal limits.

Kún-pyeng.—Revenue circle in the Le-myet-hna township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 101 square miles. Towards the west, the country is a mass of forest-covered hills, gradually rising into the Arakan Mountains. Pop. (1876), 6513; gross revenue, £1754.

Kún-rwa-leng.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Includes the five old village tracts of Kún-rwa-leng, Hpo-goung, Lek-khúp-peng, Mya-rwa, and Nga-pat. Pop. (1876), 1858; gross revenue, £425.

Kunsá.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh. Lat. 26° 20′ 15″ N., long. 81° 3′ 55″ E.; pop. (1869), 5352 Hindus, 129 Musalmáns—total, 5481, residing in 870 houses.

Kunthariá.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 2 villages, with 5 independent tribute-payers. The revenue was estimated at £1049 in 1876; and £149 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £20 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Kuntiyána.—Town in the State of Junágarh in Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 21° 38′ N., long. 70° 10′ E.; pop. (1872), 9878.

Kúnúr.—Mountain peak and town in the District of the Nílgiri Hills, Madras.—*See* COONOOR.

Kupili.—Small town and seaport in Chípurupalle *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 18° 10′ 30″ N., long. 83° 52′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 2293; number of houses, 564. Salt station, yielding a revenue of about £15,000 per annum.

Kurái.—North-western *tahsíl* or revenue Subdivision of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 110,586, residing in 484 villages or townships and 17,768 houses, on an area of 936 square miles.

Kurái.—Town in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Lat. 24° 2′ 30″ N., long. 78° 22′ 30″ E.; 32 miles north-west of Ságar. From the Gaulís it passed to the Muhammadan rulers at Delhi, of whom Aurangzeb united the *parganá* of Kurái with that of Garolá, and

gave them in *jágír* to a Dángí chief, who built the fort. In 1753, Govind Pandit, on behalf of the Peshwá, took possession of Kurái. He enlarged the fort, and dug a large well within it; and built on its south-west side a temple, still in good preservation, isolating the whole by water from a lake he had excavated. The fort consists of round towers connected by curtain walls, and encloses 11 acres. Within it stands the *tahsíl* court-house, also built by Govind Pandit. In 1818, Kurái formed part of the country ceded by the Peshwá to the British. In July 1857, the Rájá of Bhánpur invested Kurái, on which the *tahsíldár* surrendered the fort and joined the rebels. They held the place till February 1858, when Sir Hugh Rose defeated the Rájá of Bhánpur at Barodiá Nawánagar. The ravages of the rebels greatly depressed the country round Kurái; but since the new settlement, marked improvement has taken place. The town is well laid out, with wide streets, chiefly built in 1852, and substantial houses. North of the fort are some handsome Hindu temples. Large quantities of cattle are brought to the weekly markets, chiefly from the Native State of Gwalior; and the whole of the meat supplied by the commissariat to the European troops at Ságar, Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), and Nowgong comes from Kurái. The town has a police station-house, a post office, and 3 schools, two being for girls. Pop. (1877), 4965, chiefly Dángís, a class of agricultural Rájputs.

Kuram.—A District of Afghánistán, consisting of the valley of the river KURAM as far as British territory. The length of this District is about 60 miles, and its breadth varies from 3 to 10 miles.

The scenery is exceedingly fine, and in some places grand, the Sufed Koh forming a magnificent background to a picture of quiet beauty. The Kuram river runs through green fields and sunny orchards, and numerous villages dot the plain. The principal spur from the Sufed Koh range is the Peiwár ridge, which runs south and divides into two branches, one of which is parallel to the Kuram. The other rivers of this District are the Hariab, Keria, Mangal, Ahmad Khel, Kirmán, and Karamana. The chief tribes inhabiting the Kuram valley are the Bangash, Túrí, Jájí, and Mangal. The two last, who are semi-independent, inhabit the upper portion of the District towards the crest of the Peiwár Kotal, and on the south of Chamkaní. The numbers of these tribes are thus estimated:—

Mangals, . . .	at 8,000	fighting men,	by Lumsden.
Jájís, ...	,, 800	,,	,,
Bangash, . . .	,, 5,620	,,	by Edwardes.
Túrís, ...	,, 5,000	,,	,,
Total, . . .	19,420	fighting men.	

The total number of inhabitants has been estimated at 77,680, and the villages at 36.

The chief crops of Kuram are rice, cotton, barley, and *joár*. Apples, pomegranates, melons, quinces, and other fruits are also grown. Water is abundant everywhere, and irrigation is rendered easy by the presence of the Kuram and the numerous hill torrents which feed it. All the irrigated lands in the District lie close to the banks of the Kuram; and whenever these fields are flooded, it is a common practice to plant rows of willows as thickly as they will stand, and keep them cut down to 2 or 3 feet in height for some years. These spreading form a complete barrier, which in ordinary floods catches and retains rich deposits of alluvial soil, on which, as soon as it is dry, a crop is sown, while each succeeding flood only adds to the depth of the deposit. Thus the cultivator only loses one crop, and in a very few years regains a fine field supported on a living wall of willows.

The slopes of the Safed Koh range are clothed with pine forests, and the timber is floated down the Kuram to Bannu for the use of the British Forest Department.

The Kuram formed the scene of General Roberts' brilliant victory at Peiwar Kotál in the early part of the late Afghán campaign (December 1878), and its northern boundary was the starting-point from which that officer advanced on Kábul to avenge the murder of Sir Louis Cavagnari in the autumn of 1879. At the close of the occupation of Kábul in 1880, the Kuram valley, up to the eastern slopes of the Peiwar Kotál, was left in the independent occupation of its Turi (Shiá) tribesmen; the western slopes from that point reverting to Afghánistán.

Kuram.—River in Bannu District, Punjab (Panjáb); rises in the Safáid Koh Mountains beyond the frontier, and, before reaching British territory, waters the fertile Kuram valley in the independent hills. Along its course lies the famous pass of the same name, leading to Kábul. The river enters Bannu District at its north-west corner, 5 miles from the cantonment and civil station; and finally falls into the Indus some 4 miles south of Isákhel, after receiving the waters of the Tochi a few miles east of Lakki, in lat. 32° 37′ N., and long. 71° 22′ E. The rich deposits brought down by the Kuram render its stream peculiarly valuable for agricultural purposes, but very unwholesome for drinking. The Bannuchis, however, draw their whole domestic supply from this source. Immediately below the hills, boulders line the shallow bed; farther down, the stream cuts itself a deep channel through the yielding banks of clay; while near the Indus it loses its force, and widens out over a spreading and ill-defined basin. Here it becomes useful for irrigation, and a large area is constantly flooded by means of side-cuts; so much so that but little water reaches the Indus, except during the rainy season. The depth varies from 2 feet in the dry months to 6 or 7 feet in the floods. No

bridge crosses the Kuram, but it may be forded almost everywhere, except after very heavy rains. In parts, however, quicksands render the passage difficult or dangerous. Bannu District owes almost all its fertility to the Kuram and its tributary the Gambíla. Area annually irrigated, about 60,000 acres.

Kurara.—Town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 4897. Lies on the Kálpi road, 10 miles west of the civil station. Police station, post office, village school. Considerable trade in grain, cotton, and the scarlet *al* dye.

Kuráuli.—Town in Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 4071, consisting of 3012 Hindus and 1059 Muhammadans. Situated on the road from Máinpuri to Etah, 14 miles north of the former station. Open and well-built modern town, owing its rise to the growing prosperity of the Rájá and his family, who have a handsome mansion with gardens and other surroundings in its midst. Four mosques, 9 Hindu temples, the most striking built by the present Rájá, with rest-house for pilgrims attached. Post office, police station, *tahsíli* school. The Rájá takes great interest in education, especially of females, and does much to encourage improvements in the town. Local family of oculists have a high reputation for the cure of cataract.

Kurauna.—*Parganá* of Sítápur District, Oudh. Area, 46 square miles, or 29,324 acres, of which 17,314 are cultivated, 6697 cultivable, 2469 *muáfi*, and 2844 uncultivable and waste. Pop. (1869), 14,807, viz. 14,484 Hindus and 323 Muhammadans. Incidence of land tax, 2s. 0¼d. per acre of total area, 2s. 3½d. per acre of assessed area, 3s. 2⅞d. per acre of cultivated area. Of the 51 villages comprising the *parganá*, 32 are held by Janwár Rájputs, 10 by Muhammadans, 3 by Káyasths, and 2 by Gosains, while the remaining 4 are newly formed grants. The *parganá* was formerly occupied by Pásis, who were driven out by an invasion of Janwár Rájputs 400 years ago, whose descendants still own the greater part of the *parganá*.

Kurg.—Province of Southern India.—*See* COORG.

Kurha Keshupur (or *Darshannagar*).—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated 4 miles from Faizábád town, on the road to Akbarpur. Pop. (1869), 2730, viz. 2372 Hindus and 358 Muhammadans.

Kurhurbaree.—Coal-field in Hazáribágh District, Bengal.—*See* KARHARBARI.

Kurivikulam.—Town in Sankaranaianákoil *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 9° 10′ 30″ N., long. 77° 42′ E.; pop. (1871), 6267; number of houses, 1323.

Kurla.—Town in Tanna District, Bombay.

Kurmatúr.—Town in Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 9° 4′ N., long. 76° 43′ 30″ E.

Kurnool.—District and town, Madras.—*See* KARNUL.

Kurpa.—District and town in Madras.—*See* CUDDAPAH.

Kurrachee.—District *tahsíl* and town, Sind.—*See* KARACHI.

Kursanda. — Town in Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 23′ 30″ N., long. 78° 3′ 51″ E.; pop. (1872), 7145. Lies on the Agra and Alígarh road, 8 miles north of the Jumna. Principal inhabitants and landowners, Játs and Bráhmans.

Kursat.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 10 miles north of Safipur, and 4 miles north of Asiwán town. Lat. 26° 52′ 10″ N., long. 80° 27′ 10″ E. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 3719; Muhammadans, 1654; total, 5373, dwelling in 1091 mud houses. Vernacular school; weekly market, with sales averaging £223 a year. Founded by one Kuds-ud-dín, in the reign of Bábar, the previous inhabitants, a tribe called Shahíds, being expelled and their village laid in ruins. The descendants of the conquerors still hold the land.

Kursat Kalán.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; situated near the right bank of the Sai, 9 miles north-east from Mallánwán. A fine village with a population (1869) of 2688, chiefly Kanaujia Bráhmans. Bi-weekly market. Held by the Thatheras till about the middle of the 12th century, when a body of Kurmís drove them out. Their descendants still hold the village.

Kurseli.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; situated a little off the Piháni road, 11 miles north of Hardoi. Pop. (1869), 2898, mostly Pásis. Said to have been founded about 400 years ago by Diwán Sinh and Jagat Sinh, Chamár Gaurs, the descendants of Kuber Sáh, the conqueror of the Thatheras.

Kurseong.—Village in Darjíling District, Bengal.—*See* KARSIANG.

Kursi.—*Parganá* of Bára Bánki District, Oudh. Area, 89 square miles, of which 47 are cultivated. Pop. (1869), 37,459, viz. 30,966 Hindus and 6493 Muhammadans. Land revenue assessment, £7465; average incidence, 2s. 7½d. per acre of total area, 3s. per acre of assessed area, 4s. 10½d. per acre of cultivated area. Number of villages, 91; principally owned by Sayyids and Rájputs.

Kursi.—Town in above *parganá*, Bára Bánki District, Oudh; 18 miles from Bára Bánki town. Pop. (1869), 3650, of whom more than half are Musalmáns. Police station; Government school; registration office; post office. Weaving and cotton-cleaning trades flourish, but no *bázár* is held here. Crossed by two roads—one running north from Lucknow, which passes on to Mahmudábád and Biswán in Sítápur District; and the other west from Bára Bánki, which joins the imperial road from Lucknow to Sítápur. The town has long belonged to Musalmán proprietors; but it is said to have been built by two Bhars, Khushál and Mithán, one of whom gave his name to Kursi, and the other to the village of Mithán, some 4 miles east of it.

Kurtkoti.—Town in the Gadag Subdivision of Dhárwár District, Bombay; situated 25 miles east of Habli, in lat. 15° 45′ N., and long. 75° 4′ E. Pop. (1872), 5901.

Kuruda-mále (or *Kúdu-male*, 'Hill of Assembly').—Hill in Kolár District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 12′ N., long. 78° 25′ E.; 3312 feet above sea level. At the foot are the ruins of several large temples, with sculpture ascribed to Jakanchari, but apparently restored at a later date. The principal are those of Someswara and Ganesha.

Kurukshetra. — Holy tract and place of pilgrimage in Umballa (Ambálá) District, Punjab; embracing the country lying around the town of Thanesar as a centre. The name derives its origin from Kuru, father of Santanu, great-grandfather of the heroes who figure in the *Mahábhárata*. Kuru became an ascetic upon the banks of the holy lake south of Thaneswar; but the limits of the sacred tract cannot be exactly ascertained. According to popular belief, the Kurukshetra embraces 360 places of pilgrimage, and extends as far as the town of Jínd, 64 miles from Thaneswar; though General Cunningham believes that modern Bráhmans have unduly enlarged its boundaries to gratify the Síkh Rájá of Jínd, whose territories are thus included within the holy borders. Whatever be the precise extent of the sacred tract, it is certain that the strip of country between the Saraswati (Sarsuti) and the Ghaggar (the Saraswati and Drishadvati of the Sanskrit epics) formed the original home of the Hindu faith, the earliest settlement of the Aryan colonists in India. Here their religion first assumed its present form; and therefore the Kurukshetra and the river Saraswati still attract worshippers from the remotest parts of Bengal. The towns of Thaneswar and Pihoia are the chief centres of pilgrimage, but minor shrines line the bank of the river for many miles. At Thaneswar, as many as 100,000 persons still assemble on the occasion of an eclipse, and treble that number bathe annually in a tank filled from the Sarsuti. The great conflict between the Pándavas and the Kauravas was fought out in the surrounding country; and the *Mahábhárata* keeps alive the memory of all the most famous scenes in the minds of Hindu votaries, who regard the Kurukshetra as the Holy Land of their religion. Modern sanitary regulations have, however, somewhat diminished the number of pilgrims.

Kurundwád. — Native State, with a town of the same name, within the British Political Agency of the Southern Marhattá country. This State at present consists of two Divisions, one belonging to the elder ruler of Kurundwád, and the other to the younger chiefs. The former comprises groups of villages situated along the Kistna river, enclosed within the Kolhápur, Sangli, and Miráj States, and the British Districts of Satara, Belgáum, and Kanara. The latter includes two clusters of villages—one close to and for the most part to the south of Belgáum;

and the other bounded by the Akalkot State on the north-west and south, by Sholápur District on the west, and by the Nizám's Dominions on the east. The elder chief's estate contains an area of 182 square miles, and a population (1872) of 39,420 persons. The staple products are millet, rice, wheat, gram, and cotton. Coarse country cloth and articles of native female apparel are the principal manufactures. The Kurundwád State was a grant made before 1772 by the Peshwá to a member of the Patwardhan family, on condition of military service. In 1812, the State was divided, a half-share being given by the Peshwá to Gaufat Ráo, the nephew of Nil Kánt Ráo, the original grantee. In 1854, a further division of Kurundwád was effected by the British Government between Raghunáth Ráo and his two younger brothers, Vináyak Ráo and Trimbak Ráo. The latter dying in 1869 without male issue, part of his share was bestowed on the two younger chiefs, and the rest reverted to the elder chief. The present (1876-77) senior chief is Chintáman Ráo Raghunáth, a Hindu of the Bráhman caste. He is twenty-seven years of age, and administers his estate in person. He is a first-class *sardár*, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £10,000, and maintains a military force of 268 men. His family hold a *sanad* of adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. The share of the younger chiefs contains an area of 114 square miles, and a population (1872) of 30,251 persons. The arrangement entered into by the senior branch is considered as binding upon the younger chiefs. The total yearly tribute received by the British Government from Kurundwád amounts to £961. The present (1876-77) head of the younger chiefs is Ganpat Ráo Harihar, a Hindu of the Bráhman caste. He is thirty-nine years of age, and administers the estate in person. He maintains a military force of 304 men, and has an estimated gross revenue of £10,283. The town of Kurundwád, the residence of the representatives of both branches, lies in lat. 16° 41′ N., and long. 74° 38′ E., and contains a population (1872) of 7860.

Kurwái.—One of the States in the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. Lat. 23° 21′ to 24° 14′ N., and long. 77° 26′ to 78° 20′ E. The State lies on the river Betwa, between Ságar (Saugor) and Sironcha. Chief products are opium and grain. The town of Kurwái is situated in lat. 24° 7′ N., and long. 78° 5′ E. The Nawáb of Kurwái, Muhammad Najaf Khán, was born about 1824. The founder of the principality was an Afghán adventurer, named Muhammad Dalel Khán. He first entered the service of the Rájá of Datia, and afterwards, about 1726, that of the Rájá of Básoda. By dint of his valour, he became commandant of the Básoda troops; and, on the death of the chief of Kurwái, he seized

that territory, and built the fort of Kurwái. During the decline of the Mughal Empire, the State increased greatly in consideration and prosperity. The Chief rendered assistance to General Goddard in 1783, and in consequence suffered severely afterwards from the enmity of the Marhattás; in 1818, he applied to the British Resident at Bhopál for protection, which was accorded, and thenceforward he remained undisturbed in his possessions. The area of the State is about 126 square miles, with a population estimated in 1875 at 16,823; the revenue in the same year was about £10,000. The Nawáb keeps up a force of 40 horse and 150 infantry.

Kusbhadrá.—A deltaic distributary of the Koyákhái branch of the Mahánadí, which, after throwing off a branch, the Práchí, falls into the Bay of Bengal a little south of the Kanárak temple, in lat. 19° 51′ N., and long. 86° 4′ E.

Kushtiá.—Subdivision of Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 42′ to 24° 9′ N., and long. 88° 47′ to 89° 24′ 45″ E.; area (1872), 587 square miles, with 853 villages or towns, 68,086 houses, and a population of 387,874. Muhammadans, 251,322, or 64·8 per cent.; Hindus, 136,023, or 35·1 per cent.; Christians, 165; 'others,' 364; total, 387,874, viz. 186,527 males and 201,347 females. The most densely populated Subdivision in the District, the average density being 661 persons per square mile, or 1 to every ·97 of an acre; villages per square mile, 1·45; persons per village, 455; houses per square mile, 116; persons per house, 5·7. This Subdivision comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Daulatpur, Náopára, Kushtiá, Kumárkhálí, Bháluká, and Bhaduliá. In 1870-71, it contained 2 revenue and magisterial courts, a regular police force of 86 men, besides a village watch numbering 892; cost of Subdivisional administration, £5434.

Kushtiá.—Municipal town and headquarters of the above Subdivision and of a police circle (*tháná*) in Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Padmá or Ganges. Lat. 23° 54′ 55″ N., long. 89° 10′ 5″ E. Pop. (1872), Hindus, 3682; Muhammadans, 5494; Christians, 69; total, 9245, viz. 4674 males and 4571 females. Municipal income (1876-77), £279; rate of municipal taxation, 6⅝d. per head. The principal seat of river trade in the District, and an important station on the Eastern Bengal Railway. Until the extension of the line to Goálanda in 1870, Kushtiá was the terminus of the railway, and the chief landing-place for jute and other products of Eastern Bengal. The silting up of the river, and the extension of the line eastwards down the Ganges to Goálanda in Farídpur District, has removed much of the traffic of Kushtiá to the new terminus.

Kusí (*Koosy*).—River of Northern Bengal, rising among the Nepál Himálayas in lat. 28° 25′ N., and long. 86° 11′ E. It first takes a course south-west for about 60 miles, then south and south-

east for 160 more, during which it receives on its left bank its two great tributaries the Aran and Tambar. It leaves the mountains in lat. 26° 45′ N., and long. 87° 13′ E., in a series of cataracts and rapids, and after a southerly course touches upon British territory in the extreme north-west of Bhágalpur District, at which point it is a large river nearly a mile wide. It here assumes the character of a deltaic stream, and runs a direct southerly course, with many bifurcations and interlacings, till, after receiving another considerable tributary on its left bank, the Ghugri, it finally falls into the right bank of the Ganges in lat. 25° 22′ 15″ N., and long. 87° 19′ E., after a total course of about 325 miles. The Kusí is remarkable for the rapidity of its stream, the dangerous and uncertain nature of its bed, but chiefly for its constant westerly movement. The river in the early part of the 18th century passed below Purniah town, but it has since worked westwards across some 25 miles of country, as indicated by now deserted channels, to its present line. Owing to these characteristics, its navigation is at all times of the year a matter of much difficulty. The channels of deep water are constantly changing, new ones being yearly opened up, and old ones choked by vast sandbanks. The bed of the river is full of sunken trees or snags. Owing to the great velocity of the current, boats have frequently to wait several days for a favourable wind to help them up particular reaches of the river. They require to be preceded by a regular pilot, who goes some distance in advance, and selects the channel to be followed. The river is navigable all the year round by boats of from 25 to 30 tons burden; and as far as the Nepál frontier, by boats of 9 or 10 tons. According to a Hindu legend, this river is Kausiki, the daughter of Kusik Rájá, King of Gadhí. Although the daughter of a Kshattriya, she was the wife of a Bráhman; and on giving birth to a son, who preferred the warlike exploits of his mother's race to the sacred duties of his father, she became changed into a river.

Kusiárá.—The more southerly of the two branches of the Surmá or Barák river in Sylhet District, Assam. The point of bifurcation is at the village of Banga on the Cachar boundary. The Kusiárá quickly loses its identity by bifurcating in its turn into two large streams, known as the Barák and Bibiání, which ultimately reunite in the south-west of Sylhet District, and, after rejoining the main stream, contribute to make up the estuary of the Meghná. The various portions of this river are navigable throughout the year by boats of 4 tons burthen.

Kussowlee.—Town and cantonment in Simla District, Punjab.—*See* KASAULI.

Kutabdiá.—Island and lighthouse off the coast of Chittagong, Bengal. This and the neighbouring island of Máskhál bear a great resemblance both in character and general appearance to the Gangetic

SUNDARBANS. The island has lately been nearly abandoned by its inhabitants, owing to its liability to incursions of the sea. Lighthouse situated on the west of the island; lat. 21° 52′ 30″ N., long. 91° 53′ E.

Kutabnagar.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated on the high-road to Sítápur, 18 miles west of Sítápur town. Pop. (1869), 2256. Bi-weekly market; vernacular school.

Kutabpur.—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal. The site of a considerable fair held in April or May in honour of the goddess Bráhmaní, which lasts for eight days.

Kutch.—State in Bombay.—*See* CUTCH.

Kuthár.—One of the Punjab Hill States, under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab. Lat. 30° 55′ 30″ to 31° 1′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 57′ to 77° 1′ E. The area of the State is about 20 square miles, with a population estimated in 1875 at about 4000. The founder of the State is said to have come from the Jammu Hills, and conquered it at a date unknown. In 1815, when the Gúrkhas were driven out of this country, the Chief was replaced by the British, on the usual conditions of feudal service. The present Ráná of Kuthár is Jái Chand, a Rájput, born about 1845. The family suffix is Chand. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at about £500; an annual tribute of £100 is paid to the British Government.

Kutiádi.—Pass in the Western Gháts, Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 41′ to 11° 43′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 49′ 30″ to 75° 52′ 15″ E. Leading from Kurumbranád *táluk* into the Wynád; steep, and only practicable for foot-passengers and beasts of burden.

Kutosan.—State, Mahi Kánta, Bombay.—*See* KATOSAN.

Kutru. — The largest Chiefship in Bastar, Central Provinces. Bounded on the north and west by the river Indrávatí, and comprising 150 poor villages, scattered over a wild country covering an area of 1000 square miles. The chief is a Gond.

Kuttalam.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras.—*See* COURTALLAM.

Kuvam (*Cooum*).—River of Chengalpat District, Madras. Lat. 13° 1′ 30″ to 13° 4′ 10″ N., and long. 79° 48′ to 80° 20′ E. Notable only as being the stream on which the CITY of MADRAS stands. It flows from a tank in the Kanchipur *táluk*, and in the upper portion of its course it is utilized for irrigation; but within Madras municipal limits it is little more than a large open sewer.

Kweng-bouk-gyí.—Revenue circle in the Myoung-mya township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 350 square miles, comprising that portion of the delta of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) between the Rwe and the Pya-ma-law rivers. The whole may be considered as formed of pure alluvial deposit. The country as far north as the Kúk-ko channel is low, and intersected by tidal creeks; the coast-line is flat,

sandy, and bordered with narrow plains a quarter to half a mile in width. No roads, but water communication excellent. Pop. (1876), 2432, chiefly fishermen; gross revenue (of which one-third is the produce of the fishery and net tax), £1338.

Kweng-da-la.—Revenue circle in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 80 square miles. Numerous fisheries; manufacture of pottery at Pú-zwon-myoung. Pop. (1876), 7793, mainly Burmese; gross revenue, £1225.

Kweng-gouk.—Revenue circle in the Ut-hpo township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Hilly in the west, and covered with forests containing teak, *eng*, *pyeng-gado*, and other valuable timber trees. Pop. (1876), 13,731; gross revenue, £2759.

Kweng-hla.—Revenue circle in the Tha-boung township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Towards the west, the country is occupied by the well-wooded spurs and eastern slopes of the Arakan Yoma range. Pop. (1876), 4564; gross revenue, £1111.

Kwon-daw.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It now includes Reng-daw and Re-dweng-hla. Pop. (1876), 3851; gross revenue, £966.

Kwon-khyan-gún.—Village in the Angyí township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pots, used in the manufacture of salt, are made here in considerable quantities. Pop. (1877), with the adjacent hamlet of Taw-pa-lwai, 1233.

Kwon-khyoung.—Revenue circle in the Re-gyí township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 2049; gross revenue, £475.

Kwon-raik.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. An extensive alluvial plain, with a total area of 6452 acres, or little over 10 square miles. Small manufacture of salt. Pop. (1876), 1116; land revenue, £543, and capitation tax, £116.

Kwon-ún.—Revenue circle in the Tha-ga-ra township, Toung-gnú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Hilly and forest-clad towards the east. Pop. (1876), 3711; gross revenue, £418.

Kwon-ún.—Revenue circle in Thayet township, Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 8 square miles. Products—cotton, sesamum, rice, maize, etc. Pop. (1876), 5727; gross revenue, £676.

Kya-eng.—Revenue circle in the north-eastern township of Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 24 square miles. Chief products, rice and *dorian* fruit (Durio Zibethinus). Pop. (1876), 2703; gross revenue, £682.

Kya-gan.—Revenue circle in the Moung-mya township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 111 square miles. An out-crop of limestone, rising into small hills, occupies the whole of the

northern and central portions. Pop. (1876), 4833, chiefly fishermen and *nga-pí* (nga-pee) makers; gross revenue, £1536.

Kyaik-htí-yo.—A peak, 3650 feet high, on the crest of the main dividing range between the rivers Tsit-toung and Salwín, in British Burma. Its most remarkable features are the numerous granitoid boulders scattered about the summit, some being balanced in a marvellous manner on the most prominent rocks. On the more striking of these, pagodas have been built, among which the Kyaik-htí-yo-ga-le and the Kyaik-htí-yo are the principal. The latter, about 15 feet high, is built on a huge egg-shaped boulder perched on the apex of a shelving and tabular rock, which it actually overhangs by nearly one half. Pious Buddhists believe that the pagoda is retained in its position solely by the power of the hair of Buddha or Gautama enshrined in it. This relic is fabled to have been given to a hermit living on the mountain by Buddha himself.

Kyaik-hto.—Revenue circle in Tsit-toung Subdivision, Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 70 square miles; pop. (1876), 7329; gross revenue, £2133.

Kyaik-hto.—Revenue circle in Shwe-gyeng District, British Burma. —*See* BHILENG KYAIK-HTO.

Kyaik-hto.—Town in the Kyaik-hto Bhí-leng township, Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Lat. 18° N., long. 96° 50′ E. Headquarters of Tsit-toung Subdivision; centre of a busy trade in cattle, unhusked rice, betel-nuts, fish, salt, piece-goods, cotton twist, and hardware. Court and circuit houses, police station, and good market. Pop. (1876), 2040; local revenue (1876), in addition to imperial taxes, £244.

Kyaik-kaw.—Revenue circle in the Tha-htún township of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Stretches from the Martaban Hills westwards to the Bhí-leng river; and consists of a fertile alluvial plain liable to inundation from the overflow of the Bhí-leng during the rains, in spite of the protective works erected of late years. Pop. (1878), 3336, mainly Talaings and Karengs.

Kyaik-kha-mí.—Small circle in the Wa-kha-rú township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Lies between the rivers Salwín and Wa-kha-rú on the one side and the sea on the other; and consists partly of an alluvial plain, partly of uplands, with a laterite soil, well adapted for gardens. Pop. (1876), 3436; land revenue, £185, and capitation tax, £318.

Kyaik-kouk.—A pagoda standing on the Than-lyeng Kún-dan, or stretch of low laterite hills, which extend from Than-lyeng, or Syriam, to Kyouk-tan in British Burma. This pagoda, 131 feet in height and 1200 feet in circumference at the base, is constructed almost entirely of large blocks of laterite. It was built to enshrine two hairs, locally

supposed to have been given by Buddha himself to a hermit on the Martaban Hills, who afterwards presented them in 580 B.C. to Ze-ya-the-na, King of Than-lyeng. In 223 B.C., eight Rahanda or Buddhist monks visited Than-lyeng, bringing as offerings to Baw-ga-the-na, the last independent sovereign, a bone of Buddha's forehead and a tooth, one of which relics was enshrined in Than-lyeng by the pious monarch.

Kyaik-ma-raw.—Large revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma, lying between the Attaran river on the east and the Toung-gnyo chain on the west. Area, 28,723 acres, or nearly 45 square miles. Consists chiefly of extensive plains, intersected by water-courses, and becoming, after a heavy rainfall, an inland sea. Pop. (1876), 2043; land revenue, £316, and capitation tax, £208.

Kyaik-pa-ran.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. The earth from which pots for salt-boiling are manufactured, abounds here. Pop. (1876), 2057, chiefly Talaings; land revenue, £422, and capitation tax, £187.

Kyaik-than-lan.—The chief pagoda in Maulmain, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Founded 875 A.D. by a hermit named Tha-gnya or Thí-la, and supposed to contain one of Buddha's hairs. Height, 152 feet; circumference at base, 377 feet.

Kyaik-toung-hpo.—Revenue circle in the Houng-tha-raw township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 2349; land revenue, £74, and capitation tax, £112.

Kyan.—Revenue circle in the Meng-dún township, Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated among the spurs of the Arakan Mountains. Area, 91 square miles, of which 83 are uncultivable mountain waste. Products—rice, cotton, maize, etc. Pop. (1876), 2284; land revenue, £152, and capitation tax, £152.

Kyan-kheng.—Township in the extreme north of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Lat. 18° 11′ to 18° 30′ N., and long. 94° 56′ to 95° 20′ E. Extends westwards from the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) to the crest of the Arakan Yoma range, which separates it from Sandoway, a District of Arakan. The greater portion of the country is hilly, and covered with dense forest. The township is divided into 7 revenue circles, containing in 1876 a total population of 31,903 persons; gross revenue, £7367; area under cultivation, 20,266 acres, or nearly 32 square miles.

Kyan-kheng.—Town in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 18° 19′ N., and long. 95° 17′ E., on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Headquarters of an extra-Assistant Commissioner; contains a fine market, police station, and Public Works Department inspection bungalow. Considerable trade in rice. Pop. (1874), 8744; local revenue (1876-77), £750.

Kyan-kheng-myoma.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu

Division, British Burma. The south and east portions are under rice; the west is hilly and forest-clad. Pop. (1876), 4972; gross revenue, £1845.

Kyat.—River in British Burma.—*See* TOUNG-GNYO.

Kyat.—Revenue circle in the Meng-dún township, Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 21 square miles, of which 16 are mountainous and uncultivable. Pop. (1876), 1319; gross revenue, £163.

Kyat-tseng.—Revenue circle in the Mye-bú township, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 20 square miles; pop. (1876), 2319; gross revenue, £711.

Kyek-ma-ya.—Revenue circle in the Ma-ha-tha-man township, Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Rice cultivation extensively carried on. Pop. (1876), 1572; gross revenue, £367.

Kyek-ro.—Revenue circle, with an area of 26 square miles, in Cheduba Island, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Near the coast are some petroleum wells; chief products—rice and tobacco. Pop. (1876), 3233; gross revenue, £675.

Kyek-taik.—Revenue circle in the Meng-hla township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Low and level country in the west, but undulating towards the east, with low hills gradually sloping up to the Arakan Yoma range. Cutch is manufactured. Pop. (1876), 7925; gross revenue, £1949.

Kyek-taw-pyún.—Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Formed by a group of islands, 13 square miles in extent, and partly under cultivation. Pop. (1876), 1543; gross revenue, £536.

Kye-ní.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Rice cultivation is carried on near the villages, but the rest of the circle consists of undulating ground covered with tree forest. Pop. (1876), 5725; gross revenue, £1119.

Kye-rek-dweng.—Revenue circle in the western township of Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 40 square miles, of which about 3 are cultivated. Manufacture, salt. Pop. (1876), 1218; gross revenue, £440.

Kyien-ta-lí.—Revenue circle in the south of Khwa township, Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma; now includes Kyien-ta-lí-bya. Total area, 390 square miles. Chief products—rice and sesamum. Pop. (1876), 2082; gross revenue, £650.

Kyien-ta-lí-re-gyaw.—Revenue circle in the south or Khwa township of Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 196 square miles; pop. (1876), 1014; gross revenue, £279.

Kyí-thai.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-doung township, Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A generally level country,

lying along the left bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Pop. (1876), 3324; gross revenue, £654.

Kylasa (*Kailasa*).—Hill in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 17° 47′ N., long. 83° 22′ E.; highest point, 1758 feet above sea level. This hill was suggested at one time as a sanitarium for Bengal; and with that view a kind of hotel and one or two houses were built, the Rájá of Vizianágaram assisting the project with much liberality. There is an average difference of about 12 degrees between the temperature of Kylasa and that of Vizagapatam, 8 miles distant; and owing to its proximity to the sea (within 3 miles), and the absence of forest growth, the site is singularly free from fever. It is easy of access, and the climate is said to be bracing and invigorating. But whether from the difficulty of a water supply, or want of capital, the project of converting Kylasa into a sanitarium has been abandoned.

Kynchiong.—River in the Khási Hills, Assam; flows south into Sylhet District, and ultimately joins the main stream of the Surmá or Barák under the name of the Jádukátá.

Kyouk-bhú.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The country consists of a succession of densely wooded spurs from the main range, and rice cultivation is only carried on in the more level ground to the east. Pop. (1876), 1826; gross revenue, £342.

Kyouk-gyí.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 215 square miles; pop. (1876), 4125; gross revenue, £970.

Kyouk-gyí.—Township in north of Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Traversed from north to south by the Tsit-toung river; high mountainous country in the east; to the west extensive rice plains stretch between the hills and the river. Chief streams—the Kwon, the Rouk-thwa-wa, and the Kyouk-gyí, all feeders of the Tsit-toung. This township is divided into 7 revenue circles; total pop. (1876), 29,519; gross revenue, £5994.

Kyouk-gyí.—Village in the circle of the same name, Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Lat. 18° 20′ N., long. 96° 40′ E. A busy town, but the dense forest and lofty rocks surrounding it give it a dreary and desolate appearance. Under native rule, Kyouk-gyí was a fortified place, and traces of the old stockade still remain; in 1809, it was attacked and destroyed by the Zeng-mai Shans. Pop. (1877), 1643; local revenue (1876-77), £157.

Kyouk-hpyú.—A District in the Arakan Division, British Burma, lying between 18° 55′ and 19° 22′ N. lat., and between 93° 25′ and 94° E. long. Area, 4309 square miles; population in 1876-77, 149,035 persons. Bounded on the north by Akyab District, and on the farther side of the Arakan Yoma Hills by Independent Burma; south by

Sandoway; and on the west and south-west by the Bay of Bengal. The administrative headquarters are at KYOUK-HPYU TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Kyouk-hpyú District consists of (1) a strip of the mainland extending from the An Pass, across the main range, to the Ma-í river, and (2) the large islands of RAMRI and MAN-OUNG, with many others to the south, lying off the coast of Sandoway. The mainland in the north and east is highly mountainous and forest-clad, and the lower portion is cut up into numerous islands by a network of tidal creeks. Between the mainland and Ramrí lies a group of islands separated by deep, narrow, salt-water inlets, forming the north-eastern shore of Kyouk-hpyú harbour, which extends for nearly 30 miles along Ramrí in a south-easterly direction, and has an average breadth of 3 miles. In this harbour are several rocks, known as the 'Pagoda Rock,' the 'Terribles,' the 'Brothers,' the 'Sisters,' etc.,—rising abruptly from the sea, and possessing no cultivable area. The principal mountains are the Arakan Yomas, which send out spurs and sub-spurs almost to the sea-coast. This range is crossed within the limits of the District by two passes, the Dha-let and the An. (*See* AN TOWN.) The former, during the first Burmese war, was proved impassable by troops, and, owing to the precipitous nature of its ascents and descents, is but little used by the inhabitants of the country. The An Pass, an important trade route, rises to a height of 4664 feet above sea level; on the east side it falls 3777 feet in 8 miles. A chain of low hills traverses Ramrí Island from north-west to south-east, the highest point being 3000 feet. There are no rivers of any importance in Kyouk-hpyú District, but numerous small streams drain the larger islands; and the Dha-let and the An, the chief streams on the mainland, are both navigable by large boats, the former for 25 and the latter for 45 miles of its course. Above these distances, they become mere mountain torrents. The most important timber-trees found in the District are—*pyeng-gado* (Xylia dolabriformis); *ka-gnyeng* (Dipterocarpus alatus), furnishing wood-oil; three species of *kúk-ko* (Albizzia procera, A. lebbek, and A. stipulata), used for boats; *kyan* (Terminalia alata), and *bhan-bhwai* (Careya arborea), used for house-posts. The estimated area of uncultivable forest land is about 652 square miles. Kyouk-hpyú contains numerous mud 'volcanoes,' from which marsh gas is frequently discharged. Occasional issues of flames rise to a great height, and illuminate the country around for miles. The largest 'volcano' is situated in the centre of Cheduba Island. Earth-oil wells exist in several places in the District, and for some years were farmed out by the State. The deepest well is 48 feet, with a mouth 4 feet square. The oil is drawn up by means of jars, and when brought to the surface it has the appearance of a whitish blue water, which gives out brilliant straw-coloured rays, and emits a strong pungent odour. It is sold at 5 rupees (10s.) a bottle,

and is used for lighting, and in small doses for medicinal purposes. Limestone, iron, and coal have also been found in the District.

Population, etc.—By the Census of 1872, the population of Kyoukhpyú District was found to number 144,177 persons; in 1873-74, it had risen to 145,665; and in 1876-77, to 149,035. In 1872, the population was thus ethnically divided—Arakanese, 119,187; Burmese, 10,469; Khyengs, 10,322; Muhammadans, 3917; Hindus, 185; other races, 97; total, 144,177. The Arakanese inhabit mainly Cheduba, Ramrí, and the coast of the mainland; the Burmese, the valley of the An; and the Khyengs, the hill country. The Muhammadans are of mixed blood, descendants of the captives made by the Arakanese kings in their incursions into Bengal, and of the remnant of the followers of Sháh Shujá, the brother of Aurangzeb. Classified according to sex, there were in 1872—73,056 males and 71,121 females. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 25,168; and females, 24,255; total, 49,423. The analysis of the population shows that at every period up to 60, except between 12 and 20, the males exceed the females in number; but above 60, the proportion is reversed. Classified according to religion, there were—Buddhists, 129,702; Muhammadans, 3920; Hindus, 185; Christians, 47; 'others' (Khyengs, etc.), 10,323. The number of persons employed in agriculture was 31,270; of non-agriculturists, 73,826. The District does not contain a single town with 5000 inhabitants. The largest is Ramrí, with a population in 1877 of 4028. KYOUK-HPYU, the headquarters, situated on Ramrí Island, has 2620; MAN-OUNG, 1409; AN, 1634; MYE-BUN, 983.

Agriculture, etc.—Out of 4309 square miles, the total area of the District, no less than 3740, including the surface covered by streams and creeks, are returned as absolutely uncultivable; and in 1876-77, only 165 were actually under tillage. The acreage of the principal crops in that year was—rice (including fallow rice land), 91,155; sugar-cane, 1537; tobacco, 1514; *dhaní*, 2477. The rice land is not very productive, the average yield per acre being only 900 lbs.; the quantity exported varies considerably—in 1873-74, 1234 tons were shipped, and in 1876-77, only 18 cwts. The tobacco is grown chiefly for home consumption, and that produced in Cheduba is considered the finest. Though the area on which indigo is cultivated was in 1876 only 73 acres, it is far larger than anywhere else in the Province, except in Henzada. There are two pluckings for each sowing; and an acre of land sown with about 32 lbs. of seed, will produce about 15 cwts. of dye. The selling price per lb. in the local markets is 2¼d., and the annual profit per acre is estimated at from £11 to £12. Cotton and sesamum are cultivated in the *toungya* or hill gardens. The price of the most important products (per *maund* of 80 lbs.) was in

1876-77—rice, 4s.; cotton, 12s.; sugar, 12s.; indigo, 15s. Whilst the area under cultivation is extending slowly, and prices are remaining almost stationary, the rates of wages are the same as ten years ago—skilled labourers, 2s.; unskilled labourers, 1s. per diem. The agricultural stock in 1876-77 comprised 29,127 buffaloes, 53,062 cows, bulls, and bullocks, 5228 pigs, 480 carts, 16,010 ploughs; the number of oil and sugar mills was 1058. The land is held chiefly by small proprietors, who work their holdings (which seldom exceed 5 acres) themselves. When land is let, the rent, as a rule, is paid in kind; and this in the case of rice land is very low, being about 10 bushels a season. The size of the holdings shows no tendency to increase, and it is exceedingly rare to find a landowner settled in a town and living on his rents.

Manufactures, etc.—The principal articles manufactured in the District, besides the silk and cotton cloths woven in almost every house, are indigo, salt, pottery, coarse sugar, and sesamum oil. In the dry season, salt is made by solar evaporation on the banks of the numerous tidal creeks. The produce varies with the local demand for fish-curing, and with the quantity imported from foreign countries into Akyab and Bassein. In 1871-72, 11,681 cwts. of salt were manufactured; in 1872-73, 8057; and in 1873-74, 13,911 cwts. Earthen pots are made principally in the Ramrí, Myoma, Kaing-khyoung, and Than-htoung circles, and are sold on the spot to the salt-boilers. Both men and women are employed in this industry; and it has been calculated that it takes a man and a woman one month to make and burn from 800 to 1000 pots. Salt pots are sold at about 12s. the hundred, and others at half that rate. Sesamum oil is made during the hot season, and is expressed by a simple process, in which a large pestle is turned round and round in a mortar by a bullock. In some cases the oil runs off by a hole in the side of the mortar; but more often it is collected by the primitive method of dipping cloths into the mass, and wringing them out when saturated. One mill will turn out about 110 lbs. of oil a day. The oil not required for home consumption is exported principally to Akyab. Sugar-cane is grown extensively on Ramrí Island, and a coarse kind of sugar is made by crushing the cane in a press worked by a bullock or buffalo, and by boiling the juice down. Indigo is also largely manufactured in Ramrí. The total length of water communications in Kyouk-hpyú District is 894 miles; of made roads, 152 miles. The steamers of the British India Steam Navigation Company call once a month on their way from Calcutta to Rangoon (*viâ* Akyab) and the Straits Settlements, and *vice versa;* and, from November to May, once a month on their way from Calcutta to Sandoway and back. During the rainy season, the mails are sent to and from Akyab in boats, which run through the creeks, thus avoiding the open sea.

Administration.—The imperial and provincial revenue (derived chiefly from land and capitation taxes) amounted in 1856-57 to £21,062, in 1866-67 to £28,640, and in 1876-77 to £43,454. In the latter year, a local revenue of £1451 was derived from port and municipal funds, a five per cent. cess on the land and fishery dues, and other sources.

In Burmese times, the mainland portion of this District formed part of Arakan proper, whilst Ramrí and Cheduba were separate and independent Governorships. After the country was ceded to the British, the two last were formed into Ramrí District, and placed under an officer styled Principal Assistant Commissioner; while the greater portion of the mainland constituted another District, similarly ruled, called An. After this arrangement had lasted nearly thirty years, An was joined to Ramrí, and placed under a Deputy Commissioner, with his headquarters at Kyouk-hpyú; and in 1871-72, the area was increased by the addition in the north of four circles from Akyab. During the first few years of British occupation, the main body of the garrison was stationed at Sandoway, but subsequently it was removed to Kyouk-hpyú, and finally withdrawn in 1855.

The District is divided into the 5 townships of CHEDUBA or MAN-OUNG, RAMRI, KYOUK-HPYU, AN, and MYE-BUN. The police force, under a superintendent, consists of 345 men, of whom 25 are river police. The majority are located in the An township, which is traversed by the main road across the Yoma Mountains into Upper Burma; in the north, Khyengs are enlisted to keep the hillmen in order. In 1876, the number of prisoners confined in the jail at Kyouk-hpyú was 95; the gross receipts from prison labour were £338. The hospital and charitable dispensary are also at Kyouk-hpyú; the number of patients treated at the former, in 1876, was 810. As early as 1837, the State established a school, now classed as 'middle,' in the headquarters town. In 1875-76, this school had 48 pupils on the rolls, and a daily average attendance of 42 pupils, all taught the English language. In 1875, there were 83 indigenous schools in the District; of these 75 were monastic and 8 lay, educating in all 1405 children. At the Census taken in 1872, it was reported that of male Buddhists above 20 years of age, 91·02 per cent. could read and write, whilst of females only 0·81 per cent. The knowledge of reading and writing is far more general amongst the Buddhists than any other class in the District, excepting Christians.

Kyouk-hpyú.—Township in the District of the same name in the Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 383 square miles; occupying the north end of Ramrí Island, and a group of islands to the north-east formed by the numerous tidal creeks intersecting the coast. Headquarters at KYOUK-HPYU TOWN. The township comprises 19 revenue

circles. Pop. (1876-77), 39,881, mainly Arakanese; gross revenue, £13,135. Chief products—rice, indigo, salt, and sugar. For the manufacture of the last-named article, 679 mills were at work in 1875-76.

Kyouk-hpyú.—Revenue circle in the township and District of the same name in Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 26 square miles, occupying the north-west corner of Ramrí Island. Pop. (1876), 1620; gross revenue, £375.

Kyouk-hpyú.—Town and headquarters of Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma; situated in the north of Ramrí Island, in lat. 19° 22′ N., and long. 93° 30′ E. Its name, 'White Stone,' is said to be derived either from the white pebbly beach, or from a rock with a white pagoda at the entrance of the harbour. The former derivation is supported by the best authorities. When Arakan was ceded to the British in 1825, after the first Burmese war, a small fishing village occupied the site of the modern town of Kyouk-hpyú, and Ramrí was then the chief civil station. Captain Pemberton, in his report on the Eastern Frontier of India (1835), states that the cantonments were built close to the sea-shore upon a sandy plain, bounded on the south-west by a low range of sandstone hills, 500 to 2000 feet in height, which breaks the severity of the monsoon. The whole tract behind the cantonments, as far as the mouth of the Oung-choung creek on the east, was lined with mangrove jungles. Along the shores of this tidal inlet the salt of the Province was chiefly made; but the manufacture has never been extensively encouraged, as it is carried on far more cheaply on the western side of the Bay of Bengal. This description of Kyouk-hpyú is still fairly accurate, but the barracks no longer exist, the troops having been withdrawn in 1855. The town contains court and circuit houses, jail, hospital, charitable dispensary, school, and market. The harbour extends for many miles along the east shore of Ramrí Island, but numerous sunken rocks render approach dangerous. The channel, however, is well buoyed. The population in 1867 numbered 3689 persons; in 1876, 2620. The local revenue amounted in 1877-78 to £297.

Kyouk-hta-ran.—Village in the Ramrí township, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 1032, engaged in sea fishing.

Kyouk-khyoung. — Revenue circle in the Hmaw-bhí township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma; bounded by the Pegu river on the south, and by the Pu-zwon-doung on the west. A low-lying alluvial plain, with much rice cultivation, and dotted with numerous villages, the chief of which are Thien-khyoung and Khwe-ma. Pop. (1877-78), 3121; total revenue, £2906; area under cultivation, 12,625 acres.

Kyouk-khyoung-ga-le.—Village in the Le-myet-hna township,

Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on a river of the same name, a tributary of the Bassein. Pop. (1876), 1780.

Kyouk-khyoung-gyí.—Revenue circle in the Bassein township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 49 square miles. A cultivated plain stretching along the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), relieved by strips of forest land. Pop. (1876-77), 5992, chiefly agriculturists; gross revenue, £2628. The principal village, of the same name as the circle, contains (1877) a population of 1248 persons, and is the residence of the Thúgyi of the circle.

Kyouk-khyoung-myouk.—Revenue circle in the Ramrí township, Ramrí Island, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 10 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 2332; gross revenue (1876), £470.

Kyouk-khyoung-toung.—Revenue circle in the south of Ramrí Island, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 42 square miles, partly cultivated with sugar-cane and indigo; pop. (1876), 3066; gross revenue, £543.

Kyouk-maw.—Revenue circle in the north-eastern township of Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 12 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 1690; gross revenue, £597.

Kyouk-ní-maw.—Revenue circle in the western township of Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 56 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 1870; gross revenue, £461.

Kyouk-pyouk.—Revenue circle in Ramrí Island, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 25 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 2506; gross revenue, £462.

Kyouk-taing-pyeng.—Revenue circle in the Than-lyeng township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877-78), 4664; total revenue, £3841. Area under cultivation, 22,240 acres, or 34¾ square miles.

Kyouk-tan.—Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 12 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 2188; gross revenue, £521. Chief crops, rice and tobacco.

Kyouk-tan.—Revenue circle in the Myan-oung township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 6124; gross revenue, £2126.

Kyouk-tan.—Revenue circle in the Zaya township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 5000 acres, or nearly 7 square miles. The eastern portion consists of uplands, and the remainder is a low and undulating tract. Pop. (1876), 1842; land revenue, £544, and capitation tax, £216.

Kyouk-tsoung.—Revenue circle in the Kama township, Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 16 square miles, consisting for the most part of a well-cultivated rice plain to the south-west

of the Ma-htún river, which contains several fair-sized villages, viz. Taw-ma, Kyouk-tsoung, etc. Pop. (1876), 2831; gross revenue, £721.

Kyoung-gún.—Revenue circle in the Kyoung-gún township (now joined to Tsam-bay-rún), Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 32 square miles. The country is generally low and covered with grass and tree forest. Pop. (1876), 5872; gross revenue, £1843.

Kyoung-gún.—A long narrow revenue circle in the Hmaw-bhí township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Crossed from north to south by the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) Valley State Railway, with a station at Hlaw-ga, 19 miles from Rangoon. The eastern portion of the country consists of hilly forest-covered ground, largely intersected by ravines; in the west and south-west are rice plains drained by numerous small tributaries of the Hlaing river, the western boundary of the circle. Pop. (1877-78), 3593; gross revenue, £2112.

Kyoung-kwí.—Revenue circle in the Henzada township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 5309, mainly cultivators and fishermen; gross revenue, £2072.

Kyún-bouk.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-loung township, Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 112 square miles. A flat country, much intersected by creeks. Pop. (1876), 4797, chiefly engaged in fishing; gross revenue, £1059.

Kyún-hpa.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 2821; gross revenue, £1191.

Kyún-ka-ní.—Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 5954; gross revenue, £2141.

Kyún-ka-zeng.—Revenue circle in the Kyoung-gún township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A generally low and marshy tract, unfitted for rice cultivation. Pop. (1876), 3293; gross revenue, £1851.

Kyún-pa-daw.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-loung township, Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 78 square miles. The country is generally low, flat, and intersected by creeks. Considerable trade carried on with Bassein and Rangoon. Pop. (1876), 7463; gross revenue, £1754.

Kyún-pa-dúp.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-loung township, Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 65 square miles. A low country, intersected by narrow inlets. Pop. (1876), 9669, engaged in agriculture and fishing; gross revenue, £3198.

Kyún-pa-gú.—Revenue circle in the Tsit-toung township of Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 120 square miles; pop. (1876), 3774, mainly Karengs; gross revenue, £275.

Kyún-pyaw.—Headquarters of the Tsam-bay-rún township in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Lat. 17° 17′ N., long. 95° 15′ E. Large export of rice to Bassein. Contains a court-house,

police station, and market. Pop. (1877), 2835; local revenue (1876-77), £265.

Kyún-ta-ní.—A rich revenue circle in the Donabyú township, Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Its prosperity dates from the erection of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) embankments. Pop. (1876), 3972; gross revenue, £1832.

Kyún-tún.—One of the main branches of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) river in British Burma, from which it bifurcates at a place about 10 miles below Gnyoung-dún, following a south-westerly course to the sea. During the rains a rapid current sets downwards; but at other times this channel is tidal throughout its whole length, the rise and fall at its mouth being, at springs, about 7 feet. The Kyún-tún is navigable by river steamers from its northern entrance for about 60 miles. The islands in this river are numerous, the two principal ones being Miem-ma-hla (16 miles long by 3 broad) and Kywon-gnyo-gyí. In its upper reaches the Kyún-tún is known as the Eng-tai, and lower down as the Maran or Kyaik-pí; by Europeans generally it is called the Dala. River traffic in rice, sugar, betel-nut, *nga-pí*, *dhaní*-leaves, and poles, etc.

Kywai-lú.—Revenue circle in the northern township of Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma. A mountainous tract, stretching westwards from the Arakan Hills. Pop. (1876), 2333; gross revenue, £793.

Kywon-daing.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma, lying on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Pop. (1876), 3168; gross revenue, £781. This circle now includes Tshan-rwa, Tsit-taing, and Lí-bwai.

Kywon-daw-hla.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 6382; gross revenue, £1965. This circle now includes Hpa-lạn-bwai, and Tsoung-beng.

Kywon-khyoung.—Revenue circle in the Thí-kweng township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 38 square miles. To the west the country is undulating, and covered with bamboos and wood-oil trees, but the largest portion is uncultivated open waste. Pop. (1876), 4561, agriculturists and fishermen; gross revenue, £1408.

Kywon-pya-that.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-loung township, Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A low swampy region, subject to inundation, and cut up into islands by numerous interlacing creeks. Pop. (1876), 4077; gross revenue, £1155.

END OF VOLUME V.

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